

THE
PRINCIPLES
OF
MECHANICS.

EXPLAINING AND DEMONSTRATING

The General Laws of Motion,

THE LAWS OF GRAVITY, MOTION OF DESCENDING BODIES, PROJECTILES, MECHANIC POWERS, PENDULUMS,	CENTRES OF GRAVITY, &c. STRENGTH AND STRESS OF TIM- BER, HYDROSTATICS, AND CONSTRUCTION OF MACHINES.
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A Work very necessary to be known by all Gentlemen and others that desire
to have an Insight into the Works of NATURE and ART,

. AND

Extremely useful to all Sorts of Artificers ;

PARTICULARLY

TO ARCHITECTS, ENGINEERS, SHIPWRIGHTS, MILLWRIGHTS, WATCH-
MAKERS, &c. or any that work in a Mechanical Way.

THE FIFTH EDITION,

Corrected, and illustrated with Forty-three Copper-plates.

*Multaque per Trochleas, et Tympana pondere magno
Commovet, atque levi sustollit Machina nisu.*

LUCRET. Lib. IV.

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M.DCCC.



THE
P R E F A C E.

THE Art of MECHANICS being the first that men had occasion to make use of, it is reasonable to suppose that it took its beginning with man, and was studied in the earliest ages of the world; for no sooner did mankind begin to people the earth, than they wanted houses to dwell in, cloaths to wear, and utensils to till the ground, to get them bread, with other necessaries of life; and being thus destitute of proper habitations and other conveniences of living, their wants must immediately put them upon the study of mechanics. At their first setting out, they would be content with very little theory, endeavouring to get that more by experience than reasoning; and being unacquainted with numbers, or any sort of calculation, and having neither rule nor compass to work by, nor instruments to work with, but such as they must invent first of all, nor any methods of working; with all these disadvantages, we may judge what sort of work they were likely to make. All their contrivances must be mere guessing, and they could but ill execute what they had so badly contrived, and must be continually mending their work by repeated trials, till they got it into such a form as to make a shift to serve for the use designed. And this is the first and lowest state of mechanics, which was enough to give a beginning to it; and in this state it doubtless remained for a long time without much improvement; but, at length, as men found more leisure and opportunity, and gained more experience, manual arts began to take their rise, and by degrees to make some progress in the world.

But we meet with no considerable inventions in the mechanical way for a long series of ages; or if there had been any, the accounts of them are now lost, through the length of time; for we have nothing upon record for two or three thousand years forward; but afterwards we find an account of several machines that were in use; for we read in Genesis, that ships were as old, even on the Mediterranean, as the days of Jacob. We likewise read that the Philistines brought 30 thousand chariots into the field against Saul; so that chariots were in use 1070 years before Christ; and about the same time architecture was brought into Europe. And 1030 years before

before Christ, Ammon built long and tall ships with sails, on the Red Sea and the Mediterranean. And about 90 years after, the ship Argo was built; which was the first Greek vessel that ventured to pass through the sea, by help of sails, without sight of land, being guided only by the stars. Dædalus also, who lived 980 years before Christ, made sails for ships, and invented several sorts of tools for carpenters and joiners to work with; he also made several moving statues, which could walk or run of themselves. And about 800 years before Christ, we find in 2 Chron. xv. that Uzziah made in Jerusalem, engines invented by cunning men, to be on the towers and upon the bulwarks, to shoot arrows and great stones withal. Corn-mills were early invented; for we read in Deuteronomy, that it was not lawful for any man to take the nether or the upper mill-stone to pledge; yet water was not applied to mills before the year of Christ 600, nor wind-mills used before the year 1200. Likewise, 580 years before Christ, we read in Jeremiah xviii. of the potter's wheel. Architas was the first that applied mathematics to mechanics, but left no mechanical writings behind him; he made a wooden pigeon that could fly about. Archimedes, who lived about 200 years before Christ, was a most subtle geometer and mechanic. He made engines that drew up the ships of Marcellus at the siege of Syracuse, and others that would cast a stone of a prodigious weight to a great distance, or else several lesser stones, as also darts and arrows; but there have been many fabulous reports concerning these engines. He also made a sphere which showed the motions of the sun, moon, and planets. And Posidonius afterwards made another which shewed the same thing. In these days the liberal arts flourished, and learning met with proper encouragement; but afterwards they became neglected for a long time. Aristotle, who lived about 290 years before Christ, was one of the first that wrote any methodical discourse of mechanics; but at this time the art was contained in a very little compass, there being scarce any thing more known about it, than the 6 mechanical powers. In this state it continued till the 16th century, and then clock-work was invented, and about 1650 were the first clocks made. At this time several of the most eminent mathematicians began to consider mechanics; and, by their study and industry, have prodigiously enlarged its bounds, and made it a most comprehensive science; it extends through heaven and earth; the whole universe, and every part of it is its subject. Not one particle of matter but what comes under its laws. For what else is there in the visible world, but matter and motion? and the properties and affections of both these are the subject of mechanics.

To the art of mechanics is owing all sorts of instruments to work with,

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with, all engines of war, ships, bridges, mills, curious roofs and arches, stately theatres, columns, pendent galleries, and all other grand works in building. Also clocks, watches, jacks, chariots, carts and carriages, and even the wheel-barrow. Architecture, navigation, husbandry, and military affairs, owe their invention and use to this art. And whatever hath artificial motion by air, water, wind, or cords; as all manner of musical instruments, water-works, &c. This is a science of such importance, that without it we could hardly eat our bread, or lie dry in our beds.

By mechanics we come to understand the motions of the parts of an animal body; the use of the nerves, muscles, bones, joints and vessels. All which have been made so plain, as proves an animal body to be nothing but a mechanical engine. But this part of mechanics, called anatomy, is a subject of itself. Upon mechanics are also founded the motions of all the celestial bodies, their periods, times, and revolutions. Without mechanics, a general cannot go to war, nor besiege a town, or fortify a place. And the meanest artificer must work mechanically, or not work at all. So that all persons whatever are indebted to this art, from the king down to the cobbler.

Upon mechanics is also founded the Newtonian, or only true philosophy in the world. For all the difficulty of philosophy consists in this; from some of the principal phenomena of motions to investigate the forces of nature. And then from these forces to demonstrate the other phenomena; all which is to be done upon mechanical principles. Thus from the distances and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, the forces of gravity are derived; and from these forces thus known, are deduced the motions of the planets, comets, the moon, and the sea; as well as the motions of bodies upon the surface of the earth. These relate to the visible bodies of the universe. But there are also certain forces belonging to the small particles of matter, which we are still ignorant of; by which they are either impelled towards one another, and cohere in regular figures; or are repelled, and so recede from each other. For the particles of different sorts of bodies have different laws; since the small particles of some bodies attract one another, whilst those of other sorts repel each other; and that by forces almost infinitely various. Upon these forces the cohesion, solidity, and fluidity of bodies depend. The nature of elasticity, electricity, and magnetism. Upon these also depend the principles of fermentation, putrefaction, generation, vegetation, and dissolution of bodies; digestion and secretion in animal bodies; the motion of the blood and fluids in animals, and the moving of the members by the command of the will; the exciting sensations in the mind; the emission, reflection, refraction, and inflection of light; freezing by cold, burning

by fire; all operations in chemistry, &c. If these forces could be found out, it would open to us a new field in the science of mechanics. But, for want of proper experiments, these forces among the invisible and imperceptible particles of matter are utterly unknown, and exceeding difficult to be discovered, and therefore make no part of the ensuing Treatise. Nor shall I meddle with astronomy, as being a subject of itself: nor with experimental philosophy, any further than concerns mechanics.

And although architecture has a great dependence upon mechanics; yet there are a great many precarious rules in this art, invented purely for ornament, and the sake of beauty; which have nothing to do with mechanics. And therefore mechanical beauty (that is, strength in due proportion) is all that I have any business to meddle with here.

It has been ignorantly objected by some, that the Newtonian philosophy, like all others before it, will grow old and out of date, and be succeeded by some new system, which will then be as much cried up as this is now. But this objection is very falsely made. For never a philosopher before Newton ever took the method that he did. For whilst their systems are nothing but hypotheses, conceits, fictions, conjectures, and romances invented at pleasure, and without any foundation in the nature of things; he, on the contrary, and by himself alone, set out upon a quite different footing. For he admits nothing but what he gains from experiments, and accurate observations. And from this foundation, whatever is further advanced, is deduced by strict mathematical reasoning. And where this thread does not carry him he stops, and proceeds no further, not pretending to be wise above what is written in nature; being rather content with a little true knowledge, than, by assuming to know every thing, run the hazard of error. Contrary to all this, these scheming philosophers, being men of strong imaginations and weak judgments, will run on ad infinitum, and build one fiction upon another, till their Babel thus erected, proves to be nothing but a heap of endless confusion and contradiction. And then it is no wonder, if the whole airy fabrick tumbles down and sinks into ruin. And yet it seems, such romantic systems of philosophy will please some people, as well as the strictest truth, or most regular system; as if philosophy, like religion, was to depend on the fashion of the country, or on the fancies and caprice of weak people. But surely this is nothing but rambling in the dark, and saying that the nature of things depends upon no steady principles at all. But in truth, the business of true philosophy is to derive the nature of things from causes truly existent: and to enquire after those laws on which the Creator chose to found the world;
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not those by which he might have done the same, had he so pleased. It is reasonable to suppose that from several causes, something differing from each other, the same effect may arise. But the true cause will always be that from which it truly and actually does arise; the others have no place in true philosophy. And this can be known no way, but by observations and experiments. Hence it evidently follows, that the Newtonian philosophy, being thus built upon this solid foundation, must stand firm and unshaken: and being once proved to be true, it must eternally remain true, until the utter subversion of all the laws of nature. It is therefore a mere joke to talk of a new philosophy. The foundation is now firmly laid: the Newtonian philosophy may indeed be improved, and further advanced; but it can never be overthrown: notwithstanding the efforts of all the Bernoulli's, the Leibnitz's, the Green's, the Berkeley's, the Hutchinson's, &c. And even the French themselves have at last adopted it, and given up the Cartesian scheme.

Practical mechanics might be very much improved, if the secrets of all trades were to lie open, and the several machines used in each trade duly explained. And experimental philosophy would be thereby much improved, as well as the trades themselves. And one trade might borrow many great helps, in working, from another trade. It is not my design to treat at all on the lowest part of mechanics, which concerns manual arts, or working by hand. For there is no theory required here, but only a habit of working, to be acquired by frequent practice.

I have, in the following book confined myself entirely to the mathematical part, and what depends on it, and is deduced from it. And therefore I have first of all laid down and demonstrated the general laws of motion, as a foundation for all the rest. Then follow the laws of gravity, the descent of bodies, and motion of projectiles in free space; the mechanical powers; the descent of bodies upon inclined planes; the vibration of pendulums; center of gravity, and others; the pressure, strength, and stress, of beams of timber; then you have the principles of hydrostatics, hydraulics, and pneumatics; the resistance of fluids; the powers of engines, and the description of machines. In each of these, I have delivered all the fundamental principles both in theory and practice. And to make it more universally useful, I have demonstrated every thing geometrically; or at most, by the help only of the lowest and easiest rules of algebra, for the sake of brevity; avoiding all operations by fluxions: so that the reader need not be scared with the thoughts of any difficulty of that kind.

Concerning the machines, I have given an account of their structure,

ture, as far as is necessary to explain their motions and effects; omitting the description of their minuter parts, not so necessary for this end, and which are easily understood of themselves. I hope the reader will pardon my inserting among the rest, some machines that may seem trifling, put in here and there to fill up the vacant places in the schemes. Yet even in these, there is something curious in their structure or motion, that may be worth observing. I might have given the cuts of many more machines; but perhaps what I have already done, may be thought too much, in such a nation as this, where natural knowledge wants due encouragement, and where no Mæcenas appears to patronize and protect it; and where arts and sciences hang, as it were, in suspense, whether they shall stand or fall; and where public spirit and English generosity are just expiring. This decline of arts and sciences is wholly, or in a great measure owing to the ambition, and most extreme avarice of the present age; where men, not being able to lift their eyes above this earth, think nothing worth their care, but raking together the dross it affords; striving, like the toad, who shall die with the most earth in his paws. The duller part of mankind are entirely engaged in the pursuit of filthy lucre; and the brighter sort are wholly devoted to low, trifling, and often barbarous diversions. In such momentous concerns as these, it is no wonder if arts and sciences flag; and natural knowledge meet with nothing but contempt; and Minerva give place to Plutus. And indeed, if the general temper and disposition of men had been the same in all ages, as it is in this; I am in doubt whether we had ever had any such thing as a mill to grind us corn for bread, or a pump to draw us water. It is a trifling excuse for men of exalted station, to urge, that they are unacquainted with such arts or sciences. For learning has always been esteemed to be under the peculiar care and superintendency of the great; who ought to protect and encourage both that, and the professors of it; or else arts and sciences can never flourish. And as the encouragement of these evidently tends to the benefit of mankind, and the promoting of the public good; nothing can excuse so gross a neglect, or such a manifest disregard, as they shew, for the happiness of their fellow creatures. The industrious students only, have the fatigue; whilst all the world reaps the advantages of their labours:

Scire volunt omnes, mercedem solvere nemo.

JUVEN.

It is reported of Alexander, that he allowed 800 talents a year to Aristotle, to defray the expences of procuring all sorts of living creatures; so that by his own particular experience, he might be enabled

enabled to write of the nature and properties of them. And the reason why the world hath now so few Aristotles, is because there are no Alexanders.

But as to the fate of this book, it is indifferent to me what reception it shall meet with in the world. Not that I am in the least diffident of the principles here delivered; for I know they will stand the strictest examination. Nor would I be thought careless concerning the advantage, which my few readers may receive from it: for, on the contrary, I have done all I could to instruct them, and lead them regularly through this noble and useful science. But in a mercenary age, where there is so little encouragement for works of this nature, I am under no concern what judgment may be passed upon it, by the ignorant multitude. Yet I sincerely wish, that my more ingenuous readers may find what they expect here; and am in hopes, that they will meet with no difficulties, but what they will easily surmount. To effect which, I have made every thing in this book, as full and clear, as my own abilities, and the nature of the thing would permit me.

W. EMERSON.

P. S. The kind reception the former editions of this book have met with from the public, has induced me to revise and correct it; and to make such further additions thereto, as I thought necessary for completing so useful a science. Accordingly I have made such alterations and additions in this edition, as seemed absolutely necessary for the benefit of my readers.

I cannot find that I have omitted any thing material, in this Treatise, pertinent to my subject. And as my professed design was to write a book of principles, no body of common sense would expect that I should go contrary to that design, and stuff my book with calculations of difficult problems, fit only for books of Algebra and Fluxions, and not at all proper for an elementary Treatise. If I had done this, I had not only deserted my subject, and all good method; but also imposed upon my readers, by swelling the book, and making them pay dear for superfluities; and that to please a few trifling critics, who know no better. These sorts of animals live by detraction, and are always snarling at what they do not understand, and cannot mend.

*If any such set of critics, assuming the privilege of being dictators to the public, and censors of other men's writings, should start up, and cry down my book, because not written after their crude notions, I would not have my readers be at all surpris'd at this: for it would
be*

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be more surprising, if any thing of value should escape without being degraded and condemned by them. And for my own part, the only concern it will give me, will be to despise their dull criticisms, and laugh at their ignorance.

Men' moveat cimex Pantilius? aut crucier, quòd
 Vellicet absentem Demetrius? aut quòd ineptus
 Fannius Hermogenis lædat Conviva Tigelli?
 Plotius, & Varius, Mæcenas, Virgiliusque,
 Valgius, ——— probet hæc ———

HOR.



W. E.

THE

T H E

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EXPLANATION OF THE CHARACTERS.

$\propto$ as, or in a given proportion to.

Perp. perpendicular.

Rad. radius.

S. the sine.

Cof. the cosine.

Tan. the tangent.

Cotan. the cotangent.

Sec. the secant.



MECHANICS.

MECHANICS.

DEFINITIONS.

1. **M**ECHANICS is a science which teaches the proportion of the forces, motions, velocities, and in general the actions of bodies upon one another.
2. *Body* is the mass or quantity of matter. If a body yields to a stroke, and recovers its former figure again, it is called an *elastic body*: if not, it is *inelastic*.
3. *Density* of a body is the proportion of the quantity of matter contained in it, to the quantity of matter in another body of the same bigness. Thus the density is said to be double or triple, when the quantity of matter contained in the same space is double or triple.
4. *Force* is a power exerted on a body to move it. If it act but for a moment, it is called the force of *percussion* or *impulse*. If it act constantly, it is called an *accelerative force*: If constantly and equally, it is called a *uniform accelerative force*.
5. *Velocity* is an affection of motion, by which a body passes over a certain space in a given time. The velocity is said to be greater or lesser, according as the body passes over a greater or lesser space in the same time.
6. *Motion* is a continual and successive change of place. If a body moves through equal spaces in equal times, it is called *equable motion*. If its velocity continually increases, it is called *accelerated motion*; if it decreases, it is *retarded motion*. If it increases or decreases uniformly, it is *equably accelerated* or *retarded*. Likewise if its motion be considered in regard to some other body at rest, it is called *absolute motion*. But if its motion be considered with respect to other bodies also in motion, then it is *relative motion*.
7. *Direction of motion* is the way the body tends, or the right line it moves in.

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8. Quan-

DEFINITIONS.

8. *Quantity of motion*, is the motion a body has, both in regard to its velocity, and quantity of matter. This is called the *momentum* of a body, by some mechanical writers.

9. *Vis inertiae*, is that innate force of matter by which it resists any change, and endeavours to preserve its present state of motion or rest.

10. *Gravity*, is that force wherewith a body endeavours to descend towards the center of the earth. This is called *absolute gravity*, when the body tends downwards in free space: and *relative gravity* is the force it endeavours to descend with in a fluid.

11. *Specific gravity* of bodies, is the greater or lesser weight of bodies of the same magnitude, or the proportion between these weights. The specific gravity is said to be double or triple, when the weight of the same bulk of matter is double or triple.

12. *Center of gravity* of a body, is a certain point in it, upon which the body being freely suspended, it would rest in any position.

13. *Center of motion* of a body, is a fixed point about which the body is moved. And the *axis of motion*, is the fixed axis it moves about.

14. *Weight and power*, when opposed to one another, signify the body to be removed, and the body that moves it. That body which communicates the motion is called the *power*; and that which receives it, the *weight*.

15. *Equilibrium* is when two or more forces acting against one another, none of them overcome the others, but they destroy one another's effects, and remain at rest.

16. *A fluid* is a body whose parts yield to any impressed force; and by yielding are easily moved among themselves.

17. *Hydrostatics* is a science that treats of the properties of fluids.

18. *Hydraulics* is the art of raising or conveying water by the help of engines.

19. *Pneumatics* is a science that treats of the properties of the air.

20. *Machine* is any mechanic instrument contrived to move bodies, or to perform some particular motions. The mechanical powers are simple machines.

21. *Engine* is a mechanical instrument composed of levers, wheels, pullies, screws, &c. in order to move, lift, or sustain some great weight, or perform some great effect. This is the largest and most compounded sort of machines.

22. *Me-*



D E F I N I T I O N S.

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22. *Mechanic powers*, are the balance, the lever, the wheel, the pulley, the screw, and the wedge. To which some add the inclined plane.

23. *Stress* is the effect of a force acting against a beam, or any thing to break it, or the violence it suffers by that force. The contrary to this is *strength*, which is the resistance any beam is able to make against a force endeavouring to break it.

24. *Friction* is the resistance arising from the parts of machines, or of any bodies rubbing against one another.

P O S T U L A T A.

1. **T**HAT a small part of the surface of the earth, or the horizon, may be looked upon as a plane. Though this is not strictly true, yet it differs insensibly in so small a space as we have occasion to consider it.

2. Heavy bodies descend in lines parallel to one another, and perpendicular to the horizon: And they always tend perpendicular to the horizon by their weight. For this is true as to sense, because the lines of their direction meet only at the center of the earth, taken as a perfect sphere.

3. The weight of any body is the same in all places at or near the surface of the earth. For the difference is insensible at any heights to which we can ascend. Though in strictness the force of gravity decreases in ascending, from the earth's surface, in the reciprocal ratio of the squares of the heights from the earth's center.

4. We are to suppose all planes perfectly even and regular; all bodies perfectly smooth and homogeneous, and moving without friction or resistance; lines perfectly straight, and inflexible, without weight or thickness; cords extremely pliable; &c. For though bodies are defective in all these; and the parts or matter, whereof engines are made, subject to many imperfections; yet we must set aside all these irregularities till the theory is established, and afterwards make such allowance as is proper.

A X I O M S.

1. **E**VERY body perseveres in its present state, whether of rest, or moving uniformly in a right line; till it is compelled to change that state, by some external force.

2. The alteration of motion, or the motion generated, or destroyed in any body, is proportional to the force applied; and is made in the direction of that right line in which the force acts.

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3. The action and re-action between two bodies are equal, and in contrary directions.

4. The motion of the whole body is made up of the sum of the motions of all the parts.

5. The weights of all bodies in the same place, are proportional to the quantities of matter they contain; without any regard to their bulk, figure, or kind. For twice the matter will be twice as heavy, and thrice the matter thrice as heavy; and so on.

6. The vis inertię of all bodies, is proportional to the quantity of matter.

7. Every body will descend to the lowest place it can get to.

8. Whatever sustains a heavy body, bears all the weight of it.

9. Two equal forces acting against one another in contrary directions, destroy one another's effects.

10. If a body is acted on with two forces in contrary directions, it is the same thing as if it were only acted on with the difference of these forces, in direction of the greater.

11. If a body is kept in equilibrio, the contrary forces, in any one line of direction, are equal, and destroy one another.

12. Whatever quantity of motion any force generates in a given time, the same quantity of motion will an equal force destroy in the same time, acting in a contrary direction.

13. Any active force will sooner or more easily overcome a lesser resistance than a greater.

14. If a weight be drawn or pushed by any power, it pushes or draws all points of the line of direction equally; and it is the same thing, whatever point of that line the force is applied to.

15. If two bodies be moving the same way in any right line, their relative motion will be the same as if one body stood still and the other approached, or receded from it, with the difference of their motions; or with the sum of their motions, if they move contrary ways.

16. If a body is drawn or urged by a rope, the direction of that force is the same as the direction of that part of the rope next adjoining to the body.

17. If any force is applied to move or sustain a body by means of a rope, all the intermediate parts of the rope are equally distended, and that in contrary directions.

18. If a running rope go freely over several pulleys, all the parts of it are equally stretched.

19. If

AXIOMS.

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19. If any forces be applied against one end of a free lever or beam, the other end will thrust or act with a force in direction of its length.

20. The parts of a fluid will yield and recede towards that part where it is least pressed.

21. The upper part of a fluid is sustained by the lower part.

SECT.

S E C T. I.

The General Laws of MOTION.

P R O P. I.

The quantities of matter in all bodies are in the complicated ratio of their magnitudes and densities.

FOR by Def. 3. if the magnitudes be equal, the matter will be as the densities: and if the densities be equal, the matter will be as the magnitudes. Therefore the matter is universally in the compound ratio of both.

Cor. 1. The quantities of matter in similar bodies, are as the densities and cubes of their like dimensions. For the magnitude is as the cube of the diameter, or other like dimensions.

Cor. 2. The quantities of matter are as the magnitudes and specific gravities. For the specific gravities are as the densities, by Ax. 5.

P R O P. II.

The quantities of motion, in all moving bodies whatever, are in the complicate ratio of the quantities of matter and the velocities.

For if the velocities are equal, it is manifest (by Ax. 4.) that the quantities of motion will be as the quantities of matter: and if the quantities of matter are equal, the motions will be as the velocities. Therefore, universally, the quantities of motion are in the compound ratio of the velocities and quantities of matter.

Cor. In any sort of motion, the quantity of motion is as the sum of all the products of every particle of matter multiplied by its respective velocity.

For

Sect. I. GENERAL LAWS, &c.

For the quantity of motion of any particle is as that particle multiplied by its velocity: And as each particle of the same body moves with equal velocity, the motion of the whole will be the sum of the motions of all the parts.

PROP. III.

In all uniform motions, the space described is in the complicate ratio of the time and velocity.

For it is evident, if the velocity be given, the space described by any body will be as the time of its moving. And if the time be given, the space described will be greater or less according as the velocity is greater or less; that is, the space will be as the velocity. Therefore if neither be given, the space will be in the compound ratio of both the time and velocity.

Cor. The time is as the space directly, and velocity reciprocally.

PROP. IV.

The motion generated by any momentary force, is as the force that generates it.

For if a certain quantity of force generates any motion, a double quantity of force will generate double the motion; and a triple force, triple the motion; and so on.

Cor. The space described is as the force and time directly, and quantity of matter reciprocally.

For by this Prop. the force is as the motion, this is (by Prop. II.) as the matter and velocity; therefore the velocity is as the force directly, and matter reciprocally. Also (by Prop. III.) the space is as the time and velocity, and therefore as the time and force directly, and matter reciprocally.

SCHOLIUM.

Let b = body or quantity of matter to be moved.

f = force of impulse acting on the body b .

m = momentum or quantity of motion generated in b .

v = velocity generated in b .

s = space described by the body b .

t = time of describing the space s with the velocity v .

Then

Then by the three last Props. we shall have $m \propto bv$, $\propto stv$, and $f \propto m$. By the help of these three general propositions, the relation of the spaces, times, velocities, &c. may be found, upon all suppositions. And thence all the laws and proportions belonging to uniform motion, may be readily and universally resolved: expunging such as are not concerned in the question; and rejecting all those that are given or constant, and also those that are in both terms of the proportion. Thus we shall get in general,

$$f \propto m \propto bv \propto \frac{bs}{t}.$$

$$m \propto f \propto bv \propto \frac{bs}{t}.$$

$$s \propto tv \propto \frac{tm}{b} \propto \frac{tf}{b}.$$

$$v \propto \frac{m}{b} \propto \frac{s}{t} \propto \frac{f}{b}.$$

$$t \propto \frac{s}{v} \propto \frac{sb}{m} \propto \frac{sb}{f}.$$

$$b \propto \frac{m}{v} \propto \frac{f}{v} \propto \frac{mt}{s} \propto \frac{ft}{s}.$$

PROP. V.

In any motion generated by a uniformly accelerating force, the motion generated in any time is in the complicate ratio of the force and time.

For, in any given time, the motion generated will be proportional to the force that generates it, this being its natural and genuine effect. And since in all the several parts of time the force is the same, and has the same efficacy, therefore the motion generated will also be as the time: whence universally, the motion generated is in the compound ratio of both the force and the time of acting.

Cor. 1. This Prop. is equally true in respect to the motion lost or destroyed in a moving body, by a force acting in a contrary direction, by Ax. 12.

Cor.

Cor. 2. If the space through which a body is moved by any force, be divided into an indefinite number of equal parts; and if, in each part, the accelerative force acts differently upon the body, according to any certain law; and if there be taken the product of the accelerating force in each part, multiplied by the time of passing through it, then I say,

*As any uniform accelerative force $\times$ by the time of acting (FT):
To the motion generated in that time (M)::*

*So the sum of all the products of each particular force and time :
To the motion generated in this whole time, by the variable force.*

For (by this Prop.) the time of describing any part $\times$ by the force : motion generated in that time :: $F \times T : M$; therefore by composition, the sum of all the products, to the whole motion generated, is also as FT , to M .

Cor. 3. The velocity generated (or destroyed) in any time, is as the force and time directly, and the quantity of matter reciprocally.

For by Prop. II. the quantity of motion is as the matter and velocity; therefore the velocity is as the motion directly and the matter reciprocally, that is, (by this Prop.) as the force and time directly, and the matter reciprocally.

Cor. 4. The increase or decrease of any velocity, generated or destroyed in any time is as the force and time directly, and the matter reciprocally.

This follows from Cor. 3. because all effects are proportional to their causes.

P R O P. VI.

In any motion generated by a uniform accelerative force, the space described from the beginning of the motion is in the complicate ratio of the last velocity, and the time wherein it is generated.

For suppose the time divided into an infinite number of equal parts, each of which call 1, and let the times from the beginning be 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 to t . And let c be the velocity generated at the end of the time 1; then by Cor. 3. of the last Pro. the velocity generated in the same body, by the same force, in the times 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 t , will be respectively 0, c , $2c$, $3c$, $4c$. . . to tc . And by Prop. III. the spaces described in each given part of time, will be as the time (1), and the velocity;
C and

and therefore these spaces will be $0, c, 2c, 3c \dots tc$; and the sum of all these is the whole space described by the body. But the sum of the arithmetic progression, $0, c, 2c, 3c, 4c \dots tc$, where the number of terms is very great, is, $\frac{0+tc}{2} \times t$, or $\frac{tc}{2} \times t$, but tc is the last velocity and t the whole time, therefore the whole space is as $(tc \times t)$ the velocity and time conjunctly.

Cor. 1. If a body moves uniformly forward with the velocity acquired by a uniform accelerative force, it will describe twice the space in the same or an equal time, that it described by the accelerative force.

For here the spaces described in the several small parts of time, will be $tc, tc, tc \dots$ &c. to t terms, whose sum is $tc \times t$. And the sum of the former spaces, described by the accelerating force, was $\frac{tc}{2} \times t$; but $tc \times t$ is to $\frac{tc}{2} \times t$, as 2 to 1.

Cor. 2. Since any active force is an endeavour of putting a body into motion, therefore the adequate and immediate effect of an accelerating force is either motion or pressure, or both.

SCHOL.

Let b = body or quantity of matter.

F = accelerative force acting uniformly and equally on the body b .

v = velocity generated in b by the force F .

m = motion generated in b .

s = space described by b .

t = time of describing the spaces.

Then the two last propositions, together with Prop. II. will resolve all questions relating to the times, forces, velocities, &c. in uniformly accelerated motions. Thus $m \propto bv$, $m \propto Ft$, and $s \propto tv$. Whence we have in general,

$$b \propto \frac{m}{v}, \text{ \&c.}$$

$$m \propto bv \propto Ft \propto \frac{Ft}{v}, \text{ \&c.}$$

$$v \propto \frac{s}{t} \propto \frac{Ft}{b} \propto \sqrt{\frac{Ft}{b}} \propto \frac{m}{b}, \text{ \&c.}$$

$$s \propto tv \propto \frac{bv}{F} \propto \frac{Ft}{b},$$

$t \propto$

$$t \propto \frac{s}{v} \propto \frac{bv}{F} \propto \sqrt{\frac{bs}{F}} \propto \frac{m}{F}$$

$$F \propto \frac{bv}{t} \propto \frac{bs}{u} \propto \frac{bav}{t} \propto \frac{m}{t}, \text{ \&c.}$$

Where, if $m, b, \text{ \&c.}$ be given, such quantities must be left out,

PROP. VII.

If any force acting on a body at A in direction AB , cause the body to pass through the space AB in any time; and another similar force acting in direction AC , would move it through the space AC in the same time; I say, by both forces acting together, in their proper directions, the body will, in the same time, be moved through the space AD , the diagonal of the parallelogram $ABDC$. 1.

CASE I.

Let the forces at A cause the body to move uniformly along the lines AB, AC . Then since the force acting in direction AC parallel to BD , by Ax. 2, will not alter the velocity towards the line BD , the body therefore will arrive at BD in the same time, whether the force in direction AC be impressed or not; therefore at the end of the time it will be found somewhere in BD . By the same argument it will be found somewhere in the line CD , therefore it will be found in D the point of intersection, and by Ax. 1. it will move in a right line from A to D .

Otherwise;

Suppose the line AC to move parallel to itself into the place BD , whilst A moves from A to C ; then since this line and the body are both equally moved towards BD , it is plain the body must be always in the moveable line AC : therefore when AC comes to the position bg , let the body be arrived at d ; then, since both the line AC moves uniformly along AB , and the body A along AC , therefore it will be as $Ab : bd :: AB : BD$, therefore AdD is a right line.

CASE II.

Let the body be carried through AB, AC by an accelerative force. Then by Prop. VI. the space described will be as the time and velocity, and therefore the velocity will be as the space

C 2

directly

FIG. directly and time reciprocally. Also by Cor. 3. Prop. V. when

1. the force and the body is given, the velocity is as the time. Whence the time will be as the space directly and time reciprocally, and the space as the square of the time. That is the same body acted on by the same force will describe spaces which are as the squares of the times. Now let the time of describing AB or AC be 1; and let the line AC move along with the body, always parallel to itself, and in the time t , let it arrive at bg , and the body at d , moving towards g . Then, from what has been said, it is as $1 : t :: AB : Ab$, and also as $1 : t :: bg$ or $BD : bd$. whence $AB : Ab :: BD : bd$. therefore AdD is a right line.

And if you suppose the space to be as the n th power of the time, it will still be, $1 : t^n :: AB : Ab :: BD : bd$, and AdD is still a right line for any similar forces.

CASE III.

6. But if the body A be carried through AD by a uniform force, in the same time that it would be carried through AM by an accelerative force; then by both forces acting together, it will at the end of that time be found in the point H , of the parallelogram $MADH$; but then the line it describes, AGH , will not be a right line.

1. *Cor. 1. The forces, in the directions AB , AC , AD are respectively proportional to the lines, AB , AC , AD .*

For by Cor. Prop. IV. the time and the quantity of matter being given, the force is directly as the space described. And in accelerated motion, the same is true, by Pr. V. Cor. 3. and Pr. VI.

Cor. 2. The two oblique forces AB , AC are equivalent to the single direct force AD , which may be compounded of these two, by drawing the diagonal of the parallelogram AD .

Cor. 3. Any single direct force AD may be resolved into the two oblique forces whose quantities and directions are AB , AC , having the same effect, by describing any parallelogram whose diagonal is AD .

Cor. 4. A body being agitated by two forces at once, will pass through the same point as it would do if the two forces were to act separately and successively. And if any new motion be impressed on a body

a body already in motion, it does not alter its motion in lines parallel to its former direction. FIG.

Cor. 5. If two forces as AB , AC act in the directions AB , AC , respectively, draw AR to the middle of the right line BC , and $2AR$ is the force compounded out of these, and AR its direction. 2.

PROP. VIII.

Let there be three forces A , B , C of the same kind, acting against one another, at the point D , and whose directions are all in one plane; and if they keep one another in equilibrio, these forces will be to each other respectively, as the three sides of a triangle drawn parallel to their lines of direction, DI , CI , CD . 3.

Let DC represent the force C , and produce AD , BD , and complete the parallelogram $DICH$: and by the last Prop. the force DC is equivalent to the two forces DH , DI ; put therefore, the forces DH , DI instead of DC , and all the forces will still be in equilibrio. Therefore by Ax. 11. DI is equal to its opposite force A , and DH or CI equal to its opposite force B . Therefore the three forces A , B , C are respectively as DI , CI , CD .

Cor. 1. Hence the forces A , B , C are respectively as the three sides of a triangle drawn perpendicular to their lines of direction, or in any given angle to them, on the same side. For such a triangle will be similar to the former triangle.

Cor. 2. The three forces ABC will be to each other as the sines of the angles through which their respective lines of direction do pass, when produced.

For $DI : CI :: S.DCI$ or $CDB : S.CDI$ or CDA .

And $CI : CD :: S.CDI$ or $CDA : S.CHD$ or HDI or ADB .

Cor. 3. If there be ever so many forces acting against any point in one plane, and keep one another in equilibrio, they may be all reduced to the action of three, or even of two equal and opposite ones.

For if HD , ID be two forces, they are equivalent to the single force DC . And in like manner A and B may be reduced to a single force.

Cor. 4. And if ever so many forces in different planes, acting against one point, keep one another in equilibrio: they may be all reduced

FIG. *duced to the actions of several forces in one plane, and consequently to*
 3. *two equal and opposite ones.*

For if the four forces A, B, H, I , act against the point D ; and H, I , be out of the plane ADB , let DC be the common section of the planes ADB, HDI ; then the forces H, I , are reduced to the force C , in the plane ADB .

SCHOL.

This Prop. holds true of all forces whatever; whether of impulse or percussion, thrusting, pulling, pressing; or whether instantaneous or continual; provided they be all of the same kind.

Hence if three forces act in one plane, their proportions are had; and if one force be given, the rest may be found. And if four forces act, and two be given, the other two may be found; but if only one be given, the rest cannot be found; for in the three forces, A, B, C , the force C may be divided into other two an infinite number of ways, by drawing any parallelogram $DICH$ about the diagonal DC . And in general if there be any number of forces acting at D , and all be given but two, these two may be found: otherwise not, though the positions of them all be given.

PROP. IX.

If one body acts against another body by any kind of force whatever, it exerts that force in the direction of a line perpendicular to the surface whereon it acts.

4. Let the body B be acted on by the force AB in the direction AB . Let the body C and the obstacle O , hinder the body B from moving; divide the force AB into the two forces AD, AE ; or EB, DB , by Cor. 3. Prop. VII. the one perpendicular, the other parallel to the surface DB . Then the surface DB receives the perpendicular force EB , and the obstacle O the parallel force DB ; take away the obstacle O , and the force DB will move the body B in a direction parallel to the surface, with no other effect than what arises from the friction of B against that surface, occasioned by the pressure of B against it by the force EB , which, if the surface be perfectly smooth and void of tenacity, will be nothing. The force DB therefore having no effect, the remaining force EB will be the only one, whereby the body B acts against

against the surface DB , and that in direction EB perpendicular F.I.G.
to it. 4.

Cor. 1. If a given body B strike another body C obliquely, at any angle ABD , the magnitude of the stroke will be directly as the velocity and the sine of the angle of incidence ABD , and the body C receives that stroke in the direction EB perpendicular to the surface DB .

For if the angle ABD be given, the stroke will be greater in proportion to the velocity; and if the velocity AB be given, the stroke will be as AD , or $S. \angle ABD$. Or the magnitude of the stroke is as the velocity wherewith the body approaches the plane.

Cor. 2. If a perfectly elastic body A impinges on a hard or elastic body CB at B , it will be reflected from it, so that the angle of reflection will be equal to the angle of incidence. 5.

For the motion at B parallel to the surface is not at all changed by the stroke. And because the bodies are elastic they recover their figure in the same time they lose it by the stroke; therefore the velocity in direction BE is the same after as before the stroke. Let AE , BE represent the velocities before the stroke, and ED ($= AE$ and BE the respective velocities after the stroke; then in the two similar and equal triangles AEB , BED , $\angle ABE$ is equal to EBD .

But since no bodies in nature are perfectly elastic, they are something longer of regaining their figure; and therefore the angle DBF will be something more acute than the $\angle ABG$.

Cor. 3. If one given body impinges upon another given body; the magnitude of the stroke will be as the relative velocity between the bodies.

For the magnitude of the stroke is as the line BE , or the velocity wherewith the bodies approach each other; that is, as the relative velocity.

Cor. 4. And in any bodies whatever, if a body in motion strike against another, the magnitude of the stroke will be as the motion lost by the striking body.

For the motion impressed on the body that receives the stroke is equal to the magnitude of the stroke. And the same motion by Ax. 3. is equal to the motion lost in the striking body.

Cor.

FIG. 11. *Cor. 5. A non-elastic body striking another non-elastic body, only loses half as much motion as if the bodies were perfectly elastic.*

For the non-elastic bodies only stop; but elastic bodies recede with the same velocity they meet with.

Cor. 6. Hence also it follows, that if one body acts upon another by striking, pressing, &c. the other re-acts upon this in the direction of a line perpendicular to the surface whereon they act. By Ax. 3.

SCHOL.

Though the momentum or quantity of motion in a moving body is a quite distinct thing from the force that generates it, yet when it strikes another body and puts it into motion, it may, with respect to that other body, be considered as a certain quantity of force proportional to the motion it generates in the other body.

Also, although the motion generated by the impulse of another body is considered as generated in an instant, upon account of the very small time it is performed in; yet in mathematical strictness it is absolutely impossible that any motion can be generated in an instant, by impulse or any sort of finite force whatever. For when we consider that the parts of the body which yield to the stroke, are forced into a new position, there will be required some time for the yielding parts to be moved through a certain space into this new position. Now during this time, the two bodies are acting upon each other with a certain accelerative force, which in that time generates that motion, which is the effect of their mutual impulse. So that it is plain that this is an effect produced in time; and the less the time, the greater the force; and if the time be infinitely small, the force ought to be infinitely great, which is impossible. But by reason that this effect is produced in so small a time as to be utterly imperceptible, so that it cannot be brought to any calculation, upon this account the time is entirely set aside, and the whole effect imputed to the force only, which is therefore supposed to act but for a moment.

The quantity of motion in bodies has been proved to be as the velocity and quantity of matter. But the momentum or quantity of motion may be the same in different bodies, and yet may have very different effects upon other bodies, on which they impinge. For if a small body with a great velocity impinge upon another body; and if, by reason of its great velocity, it act more strongly upon the small part of the body upon which

which it impinges, than the force of cohesion of the parts of FIG. that body; then the part acted on, will, by this vigorous action, be separated from the rest; whilst, by reason of the very small time of acting, little or no motion is communicated to the rest of the body. But if a great body with a small velocity strike another body; and if by reason of its slow motion it does not act so vigorously as to exceed the force of cohesion; the part struck will communicate the motion to the rest of the body, and the whole body will be moved together. Thus if a bullet be shot out of a gun, the momentum of the bullet and piece are equal; but the bullet will shoot through a board, and the gun will only jump a little against him that discharges it. Therefore small bodies with great velocity, are more proper to tear in pieces; and great bodies with small velocity, to shake or move the whole.

PROP. X.

The sum of the motions of any two bodies in any one line of direction, towards the same part, cannot be changed by any action of the bodies upon each other; whatever forces these actions are caused by, or the bodies exert among themselves.

Here I esteem progressive motions, or motions towards the same part, affirmative; and regressive ones, negative.

CASE I.

Let two bodies move the same way, and strike one another directly. Now since action and re-action (by ax. 3.) are equal and contrary, and this action and re-action is the very force by which the new motions are generated in the bodies; therefore (by ax. 2.) there will be produced equal changes towards contrary parts. And therefore whatever quantity of motion is gained by the preceding body will be lost by the following one; and consequently their sum is the same as before.

And if the bodies do not strike each other, but are supposed to act any other way, as by pressure, attraction, repulsion, &c. yet still, since action and re-action are equal and contrary, there will be induced an equal change in the motion of the bodies, and in contrary directions; so that the sum of the motions will still remain the same.

FIG.

CASE II.

Suppose the bodies to strike each other obliquely; then since (by the last prop.) they act upon each other in a direction perpendicular to the surface in which they strike, the action and re-action in that direction being equal and contrary, the sum of the motions, the same way, in that line of direction, must remain the same as before. And since the bodies do not act upon each other in a direction parallel to the striking surface, therefore there is induced no change of motion in that direction; and therefore universally the sum of the motions will remain the same considered in any one line of direction whatever. And if the bodies act upon one another by any other forces whatever; still (by ax. 2. and 3) the changes of motion will be equal and contrary, and their sum the same as before.

Cor. 1. The sum of the motions of any system or number of bodies, in any one line of direction taken the same way, remains always the same, whatever forces these bodies exert upon each other; esteeming contrary motions to be negative. And therefore,

Cor. 2. The sum of the motions of all the bodies in the world, estimated in one and the same line of direction, and always the same way, is eternally and invariably the same; esteeming these motions affirmative which are progressive, or directed the same way; and the regressive motions negative: and therefore in this sense motion can neither be increased nor diminished. But,

Cor. 3. If you reckon the motions in all directions to be affirmative, then the quantity of motion may be increased or decreased an infinite number of ways. As suppose two equal non-elastic bodies to meet one another with equal velocities, they will both stop and lose all their motions.

For let M be the motion of each, then, before meeting, the sum of their motions is $M + M$, and after their meeting it is 0. But in the sense of this Prop. $M - M$ is the sum of the motions before they meet, because they meet contrary ways, which is 0; and it is the same after they meet. And thus a man may put several bodies into motion with his hands, which had no motion before, and that in as many several directions as he will.

PROP.

PROP. XI.

The motions of bodies included in a given space, are the same among themselves; whether that space is at rest, or moves uniformly forward in a right line.

For if a body be moving in any right line, and there be any force equally impressed, both upon the body and the right line in any direction; and in consequence of this they both move uniformly with the same velocity: now as there is no force to carry the body out of that line, it must still continue in it as before; and as there is no force to alter the motion of the body in the right line, it will (by ax. 1.) still continue to move in it as before. For the same reason the motions of any number of bodies moving in several directions, will still continue the same; and their motions among themselves will be the same, whether that space be at rest, or move uniformly forward.

Likewise, since the relative velocities of bodies, (that is, the difference of the real velocities the same way, or their sum, different ways) remain the same, whether that space be at rest, or it and the bodies move uniformly forward all altogether; therefore their mutual impulses, collisions, and actions upon one another, being (by Cor. 3. Pr. IX.) as the relative velocities must (by ax. 3.) remain the same in both cases.

SCHOL.

Before I end this section, it may not be amiss to mention a certain kind of force, called by the foreigners, *vis viva*. This they term a *faculty of acting*, and distinguish it from the *vis mortua*, which with them signifies only a solicitation to motion, such as pressure, gravity, &c. Concerning this *vis viva* they talk so obscurely, that it is hard to know what they mean by it. But they measure its quantity by the number of springs which a moving body can bend to the same degree of tension, or break; whether it be a longer or a shorter time in bending them. So that the *vis viva* is the total effect of a body in motion, acting till its motion be all spent. And according to this, they find, that the force (or *vis viva*), to overcome any number of springs, will always be as the body multiplied by the square of the velocity.

FIG. Suppose any number of equal and similar springs placed at equal distances in a right line, and a body be moved in the same right line against these springs; then the number of springs which that body will break before it stop, will be as the square of its velocity: whatever be the law of the resistance of any spring in the several parts of its tension. For from the foregoing Prop. it appears, that the swifter the body moves, so much the less time has any spring to act against it to destroy its motion; and therefore the motion destroyed by one spring will be as the time of its acting; and by several springs, as the whole time of their acting; and consequently the resistance is uniform. And since the resistance is uniform, the velocity lost will be as the time, that is, as the space directly and velocity reciprocally; whence the space, and therefore the number of springs, is as the square of the velocity. And upon this account they measure the force of a body in motion, by the square of the velocity. So at last the *vis viva* seems to be the total space passed over, by a body meeting with a given resistance; which space is always as the square of the velocity. And this comes to the same thing as the force and time together, in the common mechanics.

Now it seems to be a necessary property of the *vis viva*; that the resistance is uniform. But there are infinite cases where this does not happen; and in such cases, this law of the *vis viva* must fail. And since it fails in so many cases, and is so obscure in itself, it ought to be weeded out, and not to pass for a principle in mechanics.

Likewise if bodies in motion impinge on one another, the conservation of the *vis viva* can only take place when the bodies are perfectly elastic. But as there are no bodies to be found in nature which are so, this law will never hold good in the motion of bodies after impulse; but in this respect, it must eternally fail.

This notion of the *vis viva* was first introduced by M. Leibnitz, who believed that every particle of matter was endued with a living soul.

S E C T. II.

*The Laws of Gravity, the Descent of heavy Bodies, FIG.
and the Motion of Projectiles, in free Space.*

P R O P. XII.

The same quantity of force is requisite to keep a body in any uniform motion, directly upwards, as is required to keep it suspended, or at rest.

And if a body descends uniformly, the same force that is sufficient to hinder its acceleration in descending, is equal to the weight of it.

FOR the force of gravity will act equally on the body in any state, whether of motion or rest. Therefore if a body is projected directly upwards or downwards with any degree of velocity, it would for ever retain its velocity if it were not for the force of gravity that draws it down, by ax. 1. If therefore a force equal to its gravity were applied directly upwards, then (by ax. 9.) these two forces destroy each other's effects; and it is the same thing as if the body was acted on by no force at all. And therefore (by ax. 1.) it would retain its uniform motion.

Cor. But if a body be moved upwards with an accelerated motion, the force to cause that motion will be greater than its weight, and that in proportion to its acceleration. (by ax. 10.)

P R O P. XIII.

The velocities of falling bodies are as the times of their falling from rest.

For, by postulate 3, the body is uniformly acted on by gravity, which is its accelerating force downwards; therefore by Cor. 3. Prop. V. the velocity is as the force and time directly, and the matter reciprocally. But by ax. 5. the force of gravity

F I G. is as the quantity of matter, and consequently, the velocity will be as the time.

Cor. 1. All bodies falling by their own weight, gain equal velocities in equal times.

Cor. 2. Whatever velocity a falling body gains in any time, if it be thrown directly upwards, it will lose as much in an equal time, by *ax. 12.* And, therefore,

Cor. 3. If a body be projected upwards with the velocity it acquired by falling in any time, it will in the same time lose all its motion. Hence also,

Cor. 4. Bodies thrown upwards lose equal velocities in equal times.

P R O P. XIV.

The spaces described by falling bodies are as the squares of the times of their falling from rest.

For, by *Postul. 3.* gravity is a uniformly accelerating force, therefore by *Prop. VI.* the space described is as the time and velocity. But by the last *Prop.* the time is as the velocity, and therefore the space described is as the square of the time.

Cor. 1. The spaces described by falling bodies are also as the squares of the velocities; or the velocity is as the square root of the height fallen.

Cor. 2. Taking any equal parts of time, then the spaces described by a falling body, in each successive part of time, will be as the odd numbers, 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, &c.

For in the times 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. the spaces described will be as their squares 1, 4, 9, 16, &c. And therefore in the differences of the times, or in these equal parts of time, the spaces described will be as the differences of the squares, or as 1, 3, 5, 7, &c.

Cor. 3. A body moving with the velocity acquired by falling through any space; will describe twice that space in the time of its fall. By *Cor. 1. Prop. 6.*

Cor.

Cor. 4. If a body be projected upwards with the velocity it ac- FIG.
quired in falling, it will, in the same time, ascend to the same
height it fell from, and describe equal spaces in equal times, both
in rising and falling, but in an inverse order; and will have the
same velocity at every point of the line described.

For by Cor. 2. of the last Prop. equal velocities will be gained
or lost in equal times (reckoning from the last moment of the
descent). Therefore, since at the several correspondent points
of time, the velocities will be equal, the spaces described in any
given time will be equal, and the wholes equal.

Cor. 5. If bodies be projected upwards with any velocities, the
heights of their ascent will be as the squares of the velocities, or as
the squares of the times of their ascending.

For in descending bodies, the spaces descended are as the
squares of the last velocities, by Cor. 1. And by Cor. 4, the
spaces ascended will be equal to those descended.

Cor. 6. If a body is projected upwards with any velocity, with
the same velocity undiminished it would describe twice the space of
its whole ascent, in the same time. By Cor. 3. and 4.

Cor. 7. Hence also all bodies from equal altitudes descend to the
surface of the earth in equal times.

SCHOL.

It is known by experiments, that a heavy body falls $16\frac{1}{2}$ feet
in a second of time, and acquires a velocity which will carry it
over $32\frac{1}{2}$ feet in a second; which being known, the spaces descri-
bed in any other times, and the velocities acquired, will be known
by the foregoing propositions, and the contrary. These propo-
sitions are exactly true, where there is no resistance to hinder the
motion, but because bodies are a little resisted by the air, de-
scending bodies will be a little longer in falling; and a body
projected upwards, will be something longer in descending than
in ascending, and falls with a less velocity; and consequently a
body projected upwards with the velocity it falls with, will not
ascend quite to the same height; but these errors are so small,
that in most cases they may safely be neglected.

If the force by which a body is accelerated in falling was di-
rectly as the height fallen from, it may be computed (by Cor. 2.
Prop. V.) that the velocity acquired will also be as the height;
or

FIG. or the space described directly as the velocity. And therefore if bodies were projected upwards, they would in this case ascend to heights, which are as the velocities with which they are projected. This being compared with Cor. 5. of the last Prop. it is easy to conclude that bodies projected upwards, and acted upon by a force which is neither of a given quantity, nor in proportion to the distance of the body from the top of the ascent, but between them; that these bodies will then ascend to heights which are between the simple and duplicate ratio of the velocities.

And as these propositions lead us to the knowledge of the relation between the velocities and spaces described, from the forces being given; so *vice versa*, from that relation being given, the forces may be known. Whence if bodies are projected with any velocities into a resisting medium, and the spaces described by that body measured, the constitution of that body and the law of its resistance will be found.

P R O P. XV.

If a body be projected either parallel to the horizon, or in any oblique direction; it will, by its motion, describe a parabola.

- 6, 7. Let AD be the direction of the motion, AFG the curve described, and let $AB, BC, CD, \&c.$ be all equal, draw $AM, BF, CG, DH, \&c.$ perpendicular to the horizon, and complete the parallelograms, $AF, AG, AH, \&c.$ Then by Ax. 1. if the body were without gravity, it would move on in the line AD , and describe the lines $AB, BC, CD, \&c.$ in equal times. Now since gravity acts in lines perpendicular to the horizon, it does not affect the motion in direction AD , but generates a motion in direction AM . So that the body, instead of being at $B, C, D, \&c.$ will at the same points of time be at $F, G, H, \&c.$ But in the time of describing AB, AC, AD , the body by the force of gravity will descend through the spaces BF, CG, DH ; which are as the squares of the times they are described in (by Prop. 14.) that is, as the squares of the line AB, AC, AD . But AB, AC, AD are equal to KF, LG, MH ; and BF, CG, DH , equal to AK, AL, AM . Therefore the parts of the axis of the curve, $AK, AL, AM, \&c.$ are respectively as the squares of the ordinates $KF^2, LG^2, MH^2, \&c.$ And therefore, by the conic sections, the curve AFG is a parabola.

Cor.

Cor. 1. The line of direction AD is a tangent to the curve in A . FIG. And the latus rectum to the point A is $\frac{KF^2}{AK}$ or $\frac{AB^2}{BF}$. And in the 7. oblique projection, the parameter is $\frac{AO^2}{BF}$, supposing AOP perpendicular to AM , and G the vertex, For then $\frac{AO^2}{BF} = \frac{AP^2}{CG=GP}$.

Cor. 2. If the horizontal velocities of projectiles be the same, whatever their elevations be, they will describe the same parabola.

For if AB be the velocity and direction of the projectile, then AO is the horizontal velocity. When the body comes to the vertex G , its motion is then parallel to the horizon, which parallel motion remains the same as before, that is, equal to AO . Therefore it describes the same parabola, as a body projected from G with the velocity AO parallel to the horizon.

Cor. 3. The velocity of a projectile in any point of the curve, is as the secant of the angle of its direction above the horizon.

For AO the horizontal velocity is the same at all points of the curve; and the velocity AB at A , in the curve, is the secant of the angle of elevation OAB .

Cor. 4. The velocity at any point of the curve is the same that is acquired by falling thro' $\frac{1}{4}$ the parameter belonging to that point: Or (which is the same) thro' $\frac{1}{4}$ of the principal latus rectum + the abscissa to that point.

For let IA be the space fallen thro' to acquire the velocity in any point as A ; then the space AD described in the same time with that velocity in direction AV , will be $2AI$ (by Cor. 3. Prop. XIV.) but in the same time, by the same force of gravity, the body will descend thro' an equal space DH , therefore AD or $MH = 2DH$ or $2AM$; but the parameter $= \frac{MH^2}{AM} = \frac{4MH^2}{AM}$ or $4AM$. Therefore AM or $AI = \frac{1}{4}$ the parameter.

PROP. XVI.

The horizontal distances of projections, made with any velocities, and at any elevations, are as the sines of the doubled angles of elevation, and the squares of the velocities conjunctly.

FIG. 7. Let v = velocity of the projectile, measured by the space it passes thro' in time 1.

f = descent of a body by gravity in the same time.

x = AE the horizontal distance, or amplitude.

s = sine

c = cosine

A = sine

B = vers. sine

} of the elevation, VAE .

} of twice the elevation.

Then by trigonometry, $2sc = A$, and $2ss = B$, when the radius is 1. And in the right angled triangle AEV ,

$$c : x :: (\text{rad.}) 1 : \frac{x}{c} = AV, \text{ and}$$

$$c : x :: s : \frac{sx}{c} = VE.$$

And by Prop. III.

$$v : (\text{time}) 1 :: (AV) \frac{x}{c} : \frac{x}{cv} = \text{time of describing } AV.$$

And by Prop. XIV.

$f : (\text{time}) 1 :: \frac{sx}{c} (VE) : \frac{sx}{cf} = \text{square of the time of describing } VE$. Now the times of describing AV , VE , and the curve AGE are all equal. Whence $\frac{sx}{cf} = \frac{xx}{vvcc}$. Therefore $x = \frac{vvc}{f} = \frac{vvA}{2f}$. And therefore x or AE is as vvA .

Cor. Hence, the altitudes of projections, are as the squares of the sines of elevation, and the squares of the velocities; or as the versed sines of the double angles of elevation, and the squares of the velocities.

For if G be the vertex, $GP = \frac{1}{2} CP = \frac{1}{2} VE$, and $VE = \frac{sx}{c} = \frac{vvc}{f}$. Therefore $GP = \frac{vvc}{4f} = \frac{vvB}{8f}$. Therefore GP is as vvc or as vvB .

Cor.

Cor. 2. The times of flight of projectiles are as the velocities, FIG. 7.
and the sines of elevation.

$$\text{For the time} = \frac{x}{v} = \frac{vs}{f}.$$

Cor. 3. The greatest random or horizontal projection is at the elevation of 45 degrees. And the horizontal distances are equal, at elevations equally distant above and below 45°.

S C H O L.

Let b be the height of the perpendicular projection with the velocity v ; then will $b = \frac{vv}{4f}$. Whence

$$\text{Horizontal distance} = \frac{vvs}{f} = \frac{vvA}{2f} = 4sch = 2Ab.$$

$$\text{Altitude of the projection} = \frac{vvs}{4f} = \frac{vvB}{8f} = ssh = \frac{1}{2} Bb.$$

$$\text{Time of flight} = \frac{vs}{f} = 2s\sqrt{\frac{b}{f}}.$$

P R O P. XVII.

The distances of projections made on any inclined planes, are in the complicate ratio of the sines of the angles which the lines of direction make with the plane and zenith, and the squares of the velocities, directly; and the cosines squared of the plane's elevations reciprocally.

Let AE be the inclined plane, AV the direction of the projectile, SA , CP , VE perpendicular to the horizon; AGE the path of the projectile, and let 8.

v = velocity of the projectile in A , measured by the space it describes in the time 1.

f = space described by a descending body in the same time.

s = sine of VAE ,

c = sine of VAS ,

z = sine of SAE ,

x = AE the oblique distance, or random.

E 2

Then

FIG.
8.

Then by plain trigonometry.

$$c : x (AE) :: z : AV = \frac{xz}{c}, \text{ and}$$

$$c : x :: s : VE = \frac{sx}{c}.$$

And by Prop. III.

$$\text{Space } v : \text{time } 1 :: (AV) \frac{xz}{c} : \frac{xz}{cv} = \text{time of describing } AV.$$

And by Prop. XIV.

$$\text{Space } f : \text{time } 1 :: (VE) \frac{sx}{c} : \frac{sx}{fc} = \text{square of the time of descending through } VE.$$

But the times of describing AV , VE being equal, we have $\frac{sx}{fc} = \frac{xz}{cv}$, or $\frac{s}{f} = \frac{xz}{cv}$; whence $x = \frac{scv}{fz}$, and f being a given quantity, x or AE is as $\frac{scv}{z}$.

Cor. 1. The heights above the planes, are as the squares of the velocities, the squares of the sines of elevation above the planes, directly; and the squares of the cosines of the planes' elevations reciprocally.

For if $AP=PE$, then G is the vertex of the parabola, in respect of the plane AE . And $GP = \frac{1}{4} VE = \frac{sx}{4c} = \frac{scv}{4fz}$.

Cor. 2. The times of flight are as the velocities and sines of elevation above the planes; and the cosines of the planes' elevations reciprocally.

$$\text{For the time is } = \frac{xz}{cv} = \frac{sv}{fz}.$$

Cor. 3. Hence also the altitude is as the square of the time of flight.

$$\text{For the altitude is as } \frac{scv}{z}, \text{ and the time as } \frac{sv}{z}.$$

Cor. 4. The greatest projection upon an inclined plane, is when the line of direction bisects the angle between the plane and zenith. And the projections are equal at elevations equally distant from this line, above and below.

For

For upon the same plane, AE is as sc , and sc is greatest when $F I G.$
 $s=c$. And at equal distances above and below sc is the same. 8.

Cor. 5. This Prop. holds true, whether the projections be made up, or down the planes; or whether both planes be inclined, or one is inclined and the other horizontal.

S C H O L.

Let b = height of the perpendicular direction as before, then
 $b = \frac{vv}{4f}$. Whence

$$\text{Length of the projection} = \frac{scvv}{fzx} = \frac{4scb}{zx}.$$

$$\text{Height of the projection} = \frac{scvv}{4fzx} = \frac{sb}{zx}.$$

$$\text{Time of flight} = \frac{sv}{fx} = \frac{2s}{z} \sqrt{\frac{b}{f}}.$$

And if $d = AE$ the length of the projection, then $\frac{scvv}{fzx} = d$,
whence $v = z \sqrt{\frac{df}{sc}}$. And supposing the utmost random of
one of our greatest guns to be 5864 paces, then $v = 194$ paces
 $= 324$ yards, so that a ball shot out of her moves at the rate
of 324 yards in a second. All this supposes that there is no
resistance of the medium. But it may be noted, that by reason
of the air's resistance, the upper randoms, being more resisted,
scarce go so far as the under randoms; and the greatest random
upon a horizontal plane is therefore at something less elevation
than 45 degrees.

[30]

S E C T. III.

The properties of the mechanical powers; the balance, the lever, the wheel, the pulley, the screw, and the wedge.

P R O P. XVIII.

FIG. 9. *If at the ends of the balance AB , which are equally distant from the center of motion C , two equal weights be suspended they will be in equilibrio.*

Here AB that represents the balance is supposed to be a right line, in which are the three points A, B, C . Now the weights A, B , cannot act upon one another any otherwise than by means of the balance AB , whose fixed point is C .

Suppose then that any force applied at A puts the body A into motion, and by means of the balance the body B ; then since the brachia or ends of the beam CA and CB are equal, the arches Aa, Bb , described by these bodies will be equal; consequently the velocities and quantities of matter of A, B , being equal, their momenta or motions will be equal. And, because ACB is a right line, they move in a contrary direction; and therefore by ax. 9, these bodies cannot of themselves raise one the other, but must remain in equilibrio.

Cor. Hence equal forces A, B , applied at equal distances from the center of motion C , will have the same effect in turning the balance.

P R O P.

PROP. XIX.

In any straight lever, if the power P be to the weight W , as the distance of the weight from the fulcrum C , to the distance of the power from the fulcrum, the power and weight (acting perpendicularly on the lever) will be in equilibrio.

A lever is any inflexible beam, staff or bar, whether of metal or wood, &c. that can any way be applied to move bodies. There are 4 kinds of levers:

1. A lever of the first kind is that where the fulcrum is between the weight and the power, (fig. 10.)
2. A lever of the second kind is where the weight is between the fulcrum and the power, (fig. 19.)
3. The lever of the third kind is where the power P is between the weight and the fulcrum, (fig. 20.)
4. The fourth kind is the bended lever, (fig. 12.)

CASE I.

In the lever of the first kind WCP , instead of the power P , apply a weight P to act at the end CP . And let the lever WCP be moved into the position aCB . Then will the arches Wa , Pb be as the radii CW , CP ; that is as the velocities of the weight and power. Whence since $P : W :: CW : CP$, therefore $P : W :: \text{velocity of } W : \text{velocity of } P$: therefore $P \times \text{velocity of } P = W \times \text{velocity of } W$. Consequently the momenta or motions of P and W are equal. And since they act in contrary directions, therefore by ax. 9. neither of them can move the other, but they will remain in equilibrio.

CASE II.

The levers of the 2d and 3d kind may be reduced to the 1st thus; make $Cp = CP$, and instead of the power P , apply a weight equal to it at p . Then by Case 1, the weight W and power p will keep one another in equilibrio; and (by Cor. Pr. 18.) the weight p and power P will have the same effect in turning the lever, therefore the power P and weight W will be in equilibrio.

Cor.

FIG. Cor. 1. In any sort of lever, whether straight or bended, and
 10. whether moveable about a single point C , or an axis AB ; or whe-
 11. ther the lever be fixed to the axis, and both together moveable about
 12. two centers A, B ; or whatever form the levers have, if AB be
 13. a right line, and from the ends P, W , there be drawn lines to the
 14. center C , or perpendicular to the axis AB ; and if the power and
 15. weight act perpendicular to these lines, and be always reciprocally
 16. as these distances drawn to the center C or axis AB , then they will
 be in equilibrio.

17. Cor. 2. In any sort of lever WCP , and in whatever directions the
 18. power and weight act on it; if their quantities be reciprocally as the
 perpendiculars on their several lines of direction, let fall from the
 center of motion, they will be in equilibrio. Or they will be in equi-
 librio, when the weight multiplied by its distance, and the $S.$ angle
 of its direction is equal to the power multiplied by its distance, and
 $S. \angle$ of its direction. $W \times WC \times S. DWC = P \times PC \times S. EPC.$

For the power and weight will be in equilibrio if they be
 supposed to act at E and D ; and by ax. 14. it is the same
 thing whether they act at E and D , or at P and W . Also by
 trigonometry, $WC \times S. W = DC$, and $PC \times S. P = CE.$

Cor. 3. Hence universally, if any force be applied to a lever, its
 effect in moving the lever will be as that force multiplied by the
 distance of its line of direction from the center of motion. Or the
 effect is as the force $\times$ by its distance from the center, and by the
 sine of the angle of its direction, $P \times PC \times S. P.$

Cor. 4. If two bodies be in equilibrio on the lever, each weight
 is reciprocally as its distance from the center.

Cor. 5. In the straight lever when the weight and power are in
 equilibrio, and act perpendicularly on the lever or in parallel direc-
 tions, then of these three, the power, the weight, and pressure upon
 the fulcrum, any one of them is as the distance of the other two.

10. For if CP represent the weight W , then CW will represent
 19. the power P . And in fig. 10, C sustains both the weights, and
 20. therefore the pressure is WP ; and, fig. 19, 20, C sustains the
 difference of the weights, and therefore the pressure will be $WP.$

P R O P.

PROP. XX.

If several weights be suspended on a straight lever AB , and if the sum of the products of each weight, multiplied by its distance from the centre of motion C , on one side, be equal to the sum of the like products on the other side, then they will be in equilibrio. And the contrary. FIG. 21.

For the force of each weight to move the lever is as the weight multiplied by the distance (by Cor. 3. last Prop.); and the sum of the products is as the whole forces, which if they be equal, the forces on both sides are equal, and the lever remains at rest.

PROP. XXI.

If a bended lever WCP be kept in equilibrio by two powers, acting in the directions PB , WA perpendicular to the arms of the lever CP , CW , and if the lines of direction be produced till they meet in A , and AC drawn, and CB parallel to WA ; I say the power P , the weight or power W , and the force acting against the fulcrum C , will be respectively as AB , BC , AC , and in these very directions. 22.

Draw CB , CF parallel to WA , PA , then the angle $WFC = WAP = CBP$, and the right angled triangles WCF and BCP are similar, whence $CF : CB :: CW : CP ::$ (by Cor. 2. Pr. 19.) power P : power W . Now since (by ax. 14.) it is the same thing to what points of the lines of direction PB , WF , the forces P , W be applied; let us suppose them both to act at the point of intersection A , then since the point A is acted on by two forces which are as CF and CB , or as AB and AF , and both these are equivalent to the single force AC (by Cor. 2. Pr. 7.); therefore the fulcrum C is acted on by the force AC , and in that direction, by ax. 11.

Cor. 1. Hence the power P , the weight W , and the pressure the fulcrum C sustains, are respectively as WC , PC , and PW . That is, any one is as the distance of the other two.

For since the angles at P , W , are right, CA is the diameter of a circle passing through the points A , P , C , W , therefore

F

the

- FIG. the angle $WPC = WAC = ACB$, and the angle $CWP = CAP$;
 22. therefore the triangles ABC , WCP are similar, and $AB : BC :: WC : CP$, and $BC : AC :: CP : PW$; therefore, &c.

Cor. 2. In any lever WCP , the lines of direction of the powers PW , WF , and of the pressure on the fulcrum C , all tend to one point A .

For if not, the lever would not remain in equilibrio.

PROP. XXII.

23. If AB , CD be two levers moveable about A , and C , and some force acts upon the end B of the lever AB , in a given direction BF , whilst the lever AB acts upon CD at B . If BE be drawn perpendicular to CB , and AE parallel to BF , and if these levers keep one another in equilibrio, then I say, the force in direction BF , force against DC in direction EB , and the pressure against the centre A , are respectively as AE , BE , AB .

For since (by Prop. 9.) the lever AB acts upon BC at B , in the direction EB perpendicular to BC , and the lever CD re-acts in direction BE , and (by ax. 19.) the point A is acted on in direction BA ; therefore the point B is acted on with three forces, BF the force applied at B , and BE the re-action of the lever CD , and AB the re-action of the centre A , and AE is parallel to BF ; therefore (by Prop. 8.) these forces are as AE , BE , and AB .

Cor. If two forces BF , BE acting perpendicular to the levers AB , DC , keep these levers in equilibrio; the force BE , force BF , and pressure at A , are respectively as radius, $\text{Cof. } ABD$, and $S.ABD$.

For then EAB is a right-angled triangle, and these forces are as BE , AE , and AB , that is, as radius, $S.ABE$, and $S.AEB$, that is, as radius, $\text{Cof. } ABD$, and $S.ABD$.

PROP.

P R O P. XXIII.

If AB , BC be two levers moveable about the centres A and C , FIG. 24. and if the circles KBM and DBE be described with the radii BC , BA , and upon the circle BM as a base, with the generating circle DBE , the epicycloid BNE be described, and the lever CB and epicycloid BNE be joined together in that very position, so as to make but one continued lever $CBNE$, and if these levers $CBNE$ and AB move about the centres C , A , so that the end D of the lever AD be always in the curve of the epicycloid DK ; I say that two equal and contrary forces at D and K , acting perpendicular to the radii DA , KC , will always keep these levers in equilibrio.

For let the levers AB , $CBNE$ come into the position AD , $CKDF$, then since the epicycloid KD is described by the point D , whilst the arch DB rowled upon the equal arch BK , therefore the end D of the radius AD hath moved through an arch BD equal to the arch BK , through which K has moved. Therefore the points D , K , have equal velocities in any correspondent places, D , K , therefore equal weights H , I , applied to the circles DB and BMG will have equal quantities of motion, and will therefore keep each other in equilibrio, by ax. 9.

Cor. 1. Hence if one lever AD move uniformly about the centre A , the other CKD will also move uniformly about its center C , and the arch BD described by D will be equal to the arch BK described by K .

Cor. 2. It is the same thing whether the lever AB act against the convex or concave side of the lever CKD , provided the end D be always in the curve KD .

Cor. 3. After a like manner, if BE be an epicycloid described 25. within the circle BRM , by the generating circle BD , and the lever CBE be compounded of the right line CB and the epicycloid BE , then the levers CBE and AB , by equal forces acting at B , will keep one another in equilibrio in any position, as CKF and AD .

For when AB is come to AD , and CBE to $CKDF$, then the arch $BK = \text{arch } BD$, whence the weight or forces acting at the distances CB , AB , have equal velocities, and therefore will sustain one another.

FIG. Cor. 4. If BC be infinite, or (which is the same thing) if BK

26. be a right line perpendicular to AB , then BE or KDF will be the common cycloid; therefore whilst the point D moves uniformly about the centre A , the point K will move uniformly along the right line BK , and with equal velocities and forces; the point D in the mean time acting upon the cycloidal tooth KD . And any equal opposite forces will sustain one another.

27. In like manner, if BA be infinite, or BD a right line perpendicular to BC , then BE or DK will be an epicycloid generated by the tangent DB revolving on the circle BK ; and the velocities of K in the circle BK , and of D in the right line BD , will be always equal; and equal forces will be sustained at B , in all positions of the lever CKD .

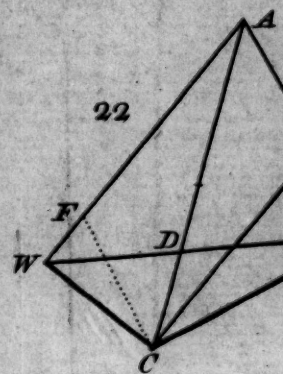
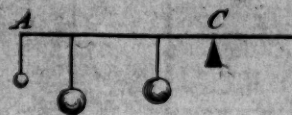
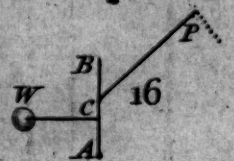
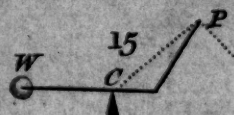
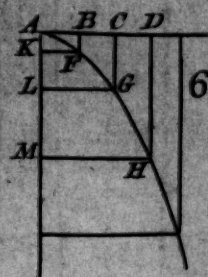
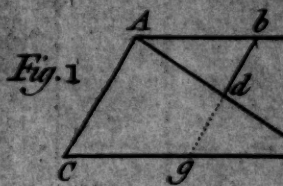
28. Cor. 5. If the figure of the tooth ef , at the end of the lever AB , be given, and the epicycloid BE be described as before, and if the levers AB , CB , be made to revolve about their centres A , C , so that the point B always move in the epicycloid BE or KD ; and if the track of the extreme points of the tooth be marked out upon the plane of the cycloidal tooth, as at $fggg$, or at $funne$; and if the part $fgDdKf$ be cut away, if the tooth be to act on the concave side of the epicycloid; or $fnDdKf$, if on the convex side; then if the levers revolve so that the tooth move along the curve gg or nn , the points D and K of the levers AB , CD , will move with equal velocities, in the arches BD , BK , as before. For the first point B in the tooth will still describe the epicycloid.

29. Cor. 6. If the two epicycloids BE , BO be described upon BM , BL with the generating circles BD , BK , and the levers AB , CB , revolve about the centres A , C , so that the point B or D of the lever AB move along the epicycloid BE or KDS ; then the point B or K , of the lever CB , will at the same time move along the epicycloid BO or DKT , and the points D , K , will describe the equal arches BD , BK , and therefore it is the same thing, on which lever the cycloidal tooth be placed, or whether on one or both.

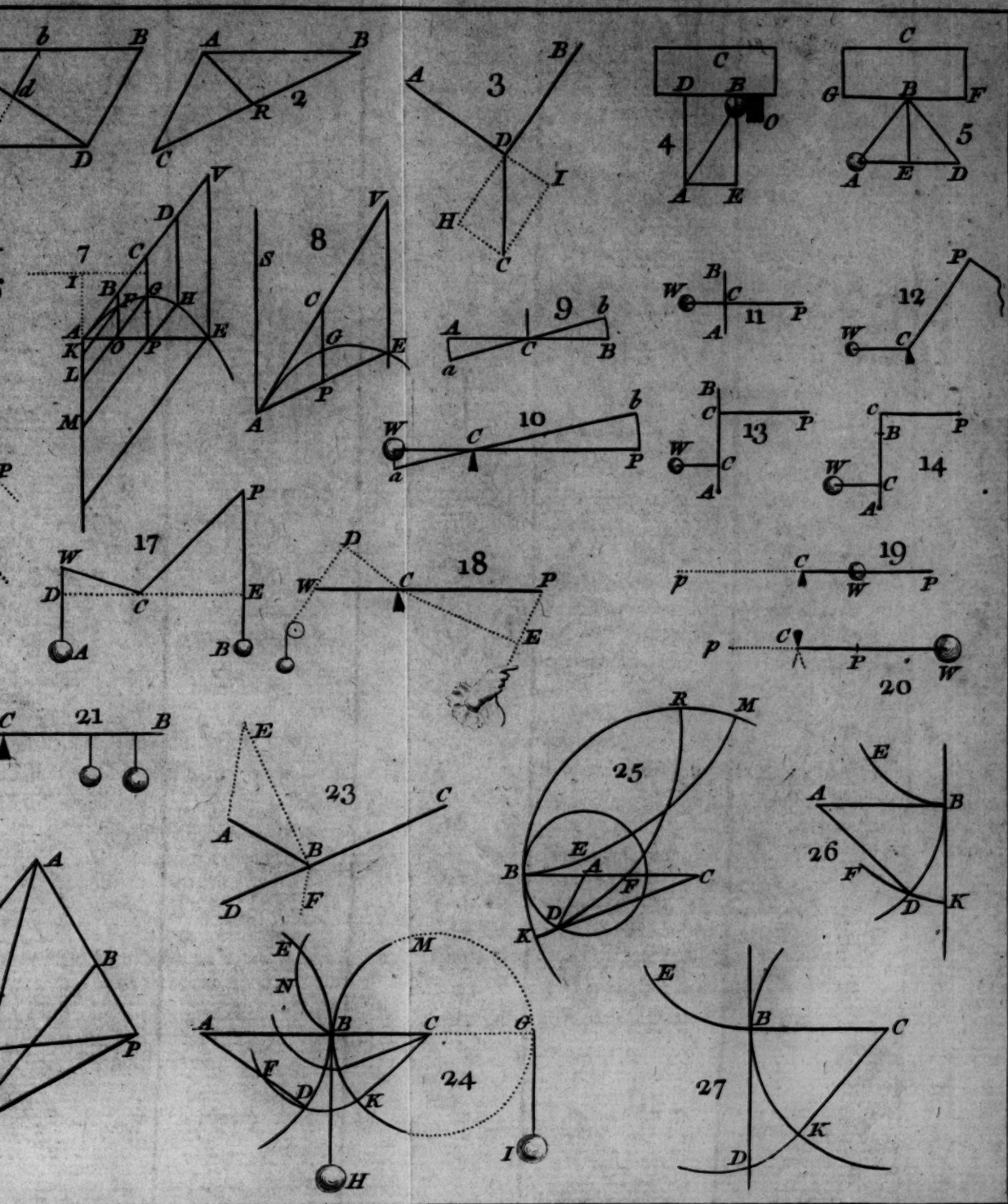
For the epicycloid DKT generated on DB , will pass through K , if $BD = BK$; also the epicycloid KDS , generated upon KB , will pass through D , when $BK = BD$.

SCHOL.

24. The levers AB , CB are supposed only to act upon one another, below the line AC , for was the action supposed to be continued



Mechanics.



continued above the line AC , the point B would no longer act FIG.
 on the same, but on a different epicycloid, and the equality of 24.
 motion would hold no longer. 25.

P R O P. XXIV.

*In the wheel and axle, if the power P be to the weight W , as the 30.
 diameter of the axle EF where the weight acts, to the diameter
 of the wheel AB , where the power acts, then the power and
 weight will be in equilibrio; and the contrary.*

For let AB be the wheel, CD the axle, and suppose the wheel and axle to turn once round, then it is plain the power P will have descended a space equal to the circumference of the wheel, and the weight W will have risen a height equal to the circumference of the axis; therefore velocity of P to velocity of W :: as circumference of the wheel, to circumference of the axis :: or as diameter of the wheel, to diameter of the axis :: that is (by supposition) as W to P ; therefore the motions of P and W are equal, and have equal forces to move each other; and therefore (by ax. 9.) will remain in equilibrio.

This Prop. will appear otherwise; for the wheel and axle may be reduced to a lever of the first kind; for the fulcrum will be in the middle of the axis CD ; therefore drawing lines from the middle of the axis to the power and weight, parallel to the horizon, and the radius of the wheel will be the distance of the power, and the radius of the axle the distance of the weight; and as these radii are reciprocally as the weight and power, therefore (by Prop. 19.) they will be in equilibrio, and thus the wheel and axle is no more than a perpetual lever.

Cor. 1. If the rope have any sensible thickness, then if the power P : weight W :: diameter of the axle + the diameter of the rope : diameter of the wheel where the power acts, they will be in equilibrio.

For the weight really hangs half the thickness of the rope beyond the axle.

*Cor. 2. If the direction of the power is not a tangent to the 31.
 wheel, suppose it to act at D or d , and let CA be perpendicular to
 the line of direction; then if $P : W :: CB : CA$, then they will
 be in equilibrio, by Cor. 2. Prop. 19.*

Cor.

FIG. Cor. 3. If the wheel and axle, one or both, have teeth, then if
 32. the power P acting on the teeth at B , be to the weight W acting on the teeth at A , as the diameter of the axle at A , to the diameter of the wheel at B , then the wheel is in equilibrio.

Cor. 4. And it is the same thing if instead of a wheel there be only spokes fixed in the axis, whose length is equal to the radius of the wheel, and any other equal force be applied for a power instead of the weight P .

Cor. 5. The force of the weight is increased when one or more spires of the rope is folded about the axle; for that, in effect, augments the diameter of the axle.

Cor. 6. It matters not how low the weight hangs, for whilst the axle remains the same the resistance of the weight remains the same, setting aside the weight of the rope.

P R O P. XXV.

33. Let NBD , MBK , be two toothed wheels in the same plane, and if the teeth of the wheel AM be the epicycloids AE , kd , KD , described on the base KBM , with the generating circle BN , and these teeth all equidistant, and if B , d , D the ends of the teeth of the wheel NBD be also equidistant, and these distances Bd , dD equal to Bk , kK ; then I say the points of the teeth B , d , D , will all act together, on the cycloidal teeth BE , kd , KD , as the wheels turn round; and any points D , K , will move through equal arches BD , BK in equal times.

Draw the radii AD , Ad , ad , CK , Ck , then AD and CKD may be considered as two levers moving about A , C , and acting on one another in D ; and the same of Ad , Ckd , acting at d . But by the motion of the wheels BD , BK , suppose D always to be in the epicycloid KD , then (Cor. 1. Prop. 23.) will $BD = BK$, and since $Dd = Kk$, therefore Bd will be $= Bk$, and consequently (by Cor. 1. Prop. 23.) the point d will be in the epicycloid kd . And thus if there be never so many teeth B , d , D , &c. they will always be in the curves of the epicycloids BE , kd , KD , &c. therefore the working teeth either act all at once

once upon one another, or they act not at all. And as the FIG. velocities of any points are equal in the two wheels *BD*, *BK*, 33. when only one tooth acts upon one, they will still be equal, if never so many act together.

Cor. 1. Hence any equal weights or forces applied to the circumferences of these two wheels, as at *B*, and acting one against the other, will keep these wheels in equilibrio. Likewise it is the same thing whether the wheel *AB* drive the wheel *CB*, its teeth acting upon the concave side of the cycloids, or the wheel *CB* drive *AB*, the convex side of the cycloid acting against the teeth of *AB*.

Cor. 2. Hence, instead of the points *B*, or the infinitely small 34. teeth of the wheel *ABD*, if any sort of a tooth *rs* be placed at *B*, and if the wheels be made to move about so that the given point *B* may describe the epicycloid *BE* or *KD*, whilst the track of the extreme points of the tooth is marked out as *KeD*, *KfD*, and the space *KeDf* be cut away, and the same be done for all the other teeth, being equidistant and of the same form and bigness; then if one of these wheels is supposed to drive the other, by these teeth running in the spaces *DfKe*, I say the circumferences of these wheels will move with equal velocities, and all the working teeth will act together. This is evident, because the points *B*, *D*, will by this motion describe the epicycloids as before.

* *Cor. 3.* If the epicycloid *BV* be described on the base *KBH*, 35. with the generating circle *BD*, and a portion of the epicycloid be placed at equal distances *B*, *L*, *K*, for teeth, then the teeth of the wheel *A* acting against the cycloidal teeth will make the motion equal in the two wheels, where we may take as great a portion of the cycloid as we will, and the sides *BO*, *LI*, which act not, may be of any figure, not to hinder the motion of the teeth of *A*; and it is the same thing what part of the tooth *LO* the tooth *G* acts against.

Cor. 4. But the teeth ought not to act upon one another before they arrive at the line *AC*, which joins their centres; and though the side *BO* of the tooth may be of any form, yet it is better to make them both sides alike, which will serve to make the wheels turn backwards; also a part, as *pqr*, may be cut away on the back of every tooth, to make way for those of *A*: and the more teeth that work together the better, at least one tooth should always begin before

* It is demonstrated by Camus (*Cours de Mathematique*, tom. 2. p. 349, Ed. 1767) that the teeth of the two wheels should have the figures of epicycloids, but that the generating circles of these epicycloids should have their diameters only the half of what Mr. E. here makes them. H.

FIG. the other hath done working. The teeth ought to be disposed in
 35. such manner as not to trouble or hinder one another before they begin to work, and that there be a convenient length, depth and thickness given them, that they may more easily disengage themselves, as well as for strength.

PROP. XXVI.

36. In a combination of wheels with teeth, if the power P be to the weight W , as the product of the diameters of all the axles, pinions, or trundles, to the product of the diameters of all the wheels, they will be in equilibrio.

For by Prop. XXIV.

The power P acting at A : force on B :: diam. B : diam. A ,
 and force on B or C : force on D :: diam. D : diam. C ,
 and force on D or E : weight W at F :: diam. F : diam. E .

Therefore ex equo,

Power P : weight W :: product of the diameters B, D, F :
 to the product of the diameters A, C, E .

38. Cor. 1. In a combination of wheels going by cords, if the power P be to the weight W , as the product of all the diameters of the axles, B, D, F , to the product of all the diameters of the wheels, A, C, E , they will be in equilibrio.

For the cords supply the place of teeth.

36. Cor. 2. In any combination of wheels with teeth, if the power P be to the weight W , as the diameter of the axle F where the weight acts, multiplied into the product of the teeth in each pinion or spindle, is to the diameter of the wheel A , where the power acts, multiplied by the product of the teeth in each of the wheels (that the pinions act against); the weight and power will be in equilibrio.

For the number of teeth in each wheel and pinion that act against one another, are as the circumferences or as the diameters of that wheel and pinion.

Cor. 3. And hence also, if the power be to the weight, in a ratio compounded of the diameter of the axle F , where the weight acts, to the diameter of the wheel A , where the power acts, and the ratio of the number of teeth in the first axle (B), reckoning from the power, to the number of teeth in the second wheel (C), and of the number of teeth in the second axle (D), to the number in the third wheel (E), and so on till the last; then they will be in equilibrio.

Cor.

Cor. 4. In a combination of wheels, the number of revolutions of the wheel *F* where the weight acts, to the number of revolutions of the wheel *A* where the power acts, in the same time, is as the product of the teeth in the pinions, to the product of the teeth in the wheels which act in them; or as the product of the diameters of the pinions, to the product of the diameters of the wheels.

S C H O L.

Wheels with oblique teeth come under the same rules; but as they are related to the screw, we refer you thither for a farther account thereof.

In wheels whose teeth work together, they should not encounter before they come to the line joining their centres; because the rubbing is greater on that side; but being past the line, the teeth slip easily along one another, in making their escape, so that the friction is very inconsiderable.

P R O P. XXVII.

If a power sustain a weight by means of a rope going over a fixt pulley, then the power is equal to the weight; but if the pulley be moveable together with the weight, and the other end of the rope fixt, then the power will be but half the weight.

39.

40.

For suppose a horizontal line *AB* drawn through the centre of the pulley *C*; then that line will represent a lever, and (in fig. 39.) where the pulley is fixt, the centre *C* being kept immoveable, represents the fulcrum, whilst the weight acts at *B*, and the power at *A*. And because $BC = CA$, therefore (by Prop. 19.) the power *P* is equal to the weight *W*.

And (in fig. 40.) the fixt point *B* is the fulcrum, and the weight acts at *C*, and the power at *A*; and since *BC* is half *AB*, therefore (by Prop. 19.) the power *P* is half the weight *W*.

Cor. Hence all fixt pulleys are equivalent to levers of the first kind. And they add no new force to the power, but only serve to change the direction, and facilitate the motion of the rope: but a moveable pulley doubles the force. And if a rope go over several pulleys, *A, B, C*, whose blocks are all fixt; the power is neither increased nor diminished.

41.

G

P R O P.

PROP. XXVIII.

FIG. 42. In a combination of pulleys all drawn by one running rope, if the power P be to the weight W , as 1 to the number of parts of the rope at the moveable block A , they will be in equilibrio.

For (by ax. 18.) all the parts of the rope m, o, n, r, s, t, v , are equally stretched, and the weight W is sustained by the number of ropes that act against the moveable block, and the rope v or the power P acts with the force of one or unit; therefore the power is to the weight, as 1 to the number of ropes pulling at the moveable block A .

Cor. Hence the power is to the force by which the immoveable block B is drawn, as 1 to the number of ropes acting against that immoveable block.

PROP. XXIX.

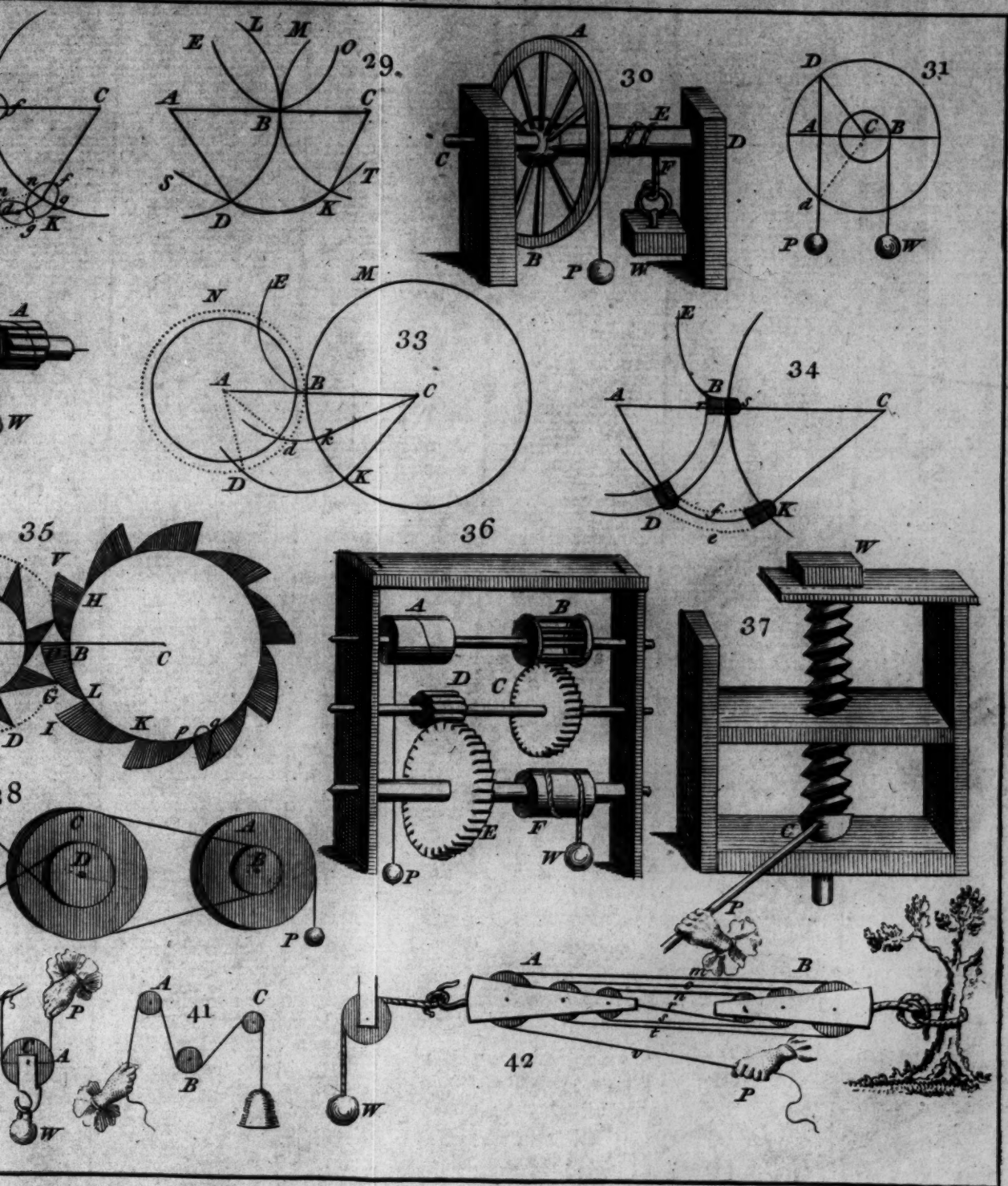
37. In the screw, if the power P be to the weight W , as the height of one thread (reckoned according to the length of the screw), to the circumference described by one revolution of the power, then they will be in equilibrio.

For the weight W rises the height of one thread, whilst the power describes the circumference whose radius is PC . Therefore the velocities of the power and weight are reciprocally as their quantities: therefore their motions are equal, and they are in equilibrio.

Cor. I. In the endless or perpetual screw AB , having one worm, leaf, or tooth, which drives the teeth of the wheel CD , if you take the distance of two threads in the screw AB , according to the length of the axis AB ; or the distance of two teeth in the wheel CD , in direction of the circumference, and if a weight W act at the circumference of the wheel CD ; then if the power P , be to the weight W , as that distance (of the teeth or threads) to the length described by the power P , in one revolution, they are in equilibrio.

For in one revolution of P , the wheel DC with the weight W , has moved the distance of one tooth.

Cor.



Cor. 2. And universally, if there be several worms or spiral leaves, FIG. upon the axis AB, and the weight G hangs upon the axle EF, then if the power P, is to the weight G :: as the radius of the axle EF $\times$ number of worms in AB, to AP $\times$ number of teeth in CD, then the power and weight are in equilibrio. For by Cor. 3. prop. XXVI, if n be the number of worms, then $P : G :: n \times \frac{1}{2}EF : AP \times$ teeth in CD.

Cor. 3. And by reason of the obliquity of the teeth, the force acting perpendicular to the teeth, the lateral force perpendicular to the wheel, and the direct force in the plane of the wheel, will be respectively, as radius, the sine, and cosine of the obliquity of the teeth.

For let GD be the side of a tooth acted on; GE parallel to the axis of the wheel, and DE perpendicular to it, or in the plane of the wheel. Now if GD represent the force acting perpendicular to the tooth, then DE, GE will be the forces acting in the directions GE, DE, (by Cor. 1. Prop. 8.) but if GD be radius, DE is the sine of the obliquity, and GE the cosine. 44.

Cor. 4. In the common screw, the less the distances of the threads are, and the longer the handle is, the easier any given weight is moved.

Cor. 5. What is here demonstrated, will hold equally true, if the wheel CD act upon another wheel with oblique teeth, instead of the worm AB.

S C H O L.

The force of the screw resembles the force that drives a body up an inclined plane; the force acting parallel to the base of the plane.

All things here laid down relating to the perpetual screw, do suppose that the axis of the worm-spindle lies in the plane of the wheel it works in, and that their axles are perpendicular to each other; but if they are oblique in position, and the teeth of one or both also oblique, they cannot work without loss of power; a part being lost proportional to the obliquity.

If any worm-spindle contains one leaf or worm, then a spindle of twice the diameter will require two worms, and one of thrice the diameter, three worms, &c. to work in the same wheel; and the power is best estimated by the rise or fall of a tooth of CD (fig 43.) for a revolution of the power P.

PROP. XXX.

FIG.

45. Let EFG be the back or base of a wedge in form of an isosceles triangle, then if the power acting perpendicular to the back FG , is to the force or resistance acting against either side, in a direction perpendicular to that side; as the back of the wedge FG , to either of the sides EF , EG : then the wedge is in equilibrio; or, which is the same thing, the power is to the whole resistance against both sides, as the back FG , to the sum of the sides EF , EG .

For draw the axis ED perpendicular to the base FG , and CA , CB perpendicular to the sides EF , EG , then DC is the direction of the power. And (by Prop. 9.) the impediment to be removed, acts against the wedge in the directions AC , BC ; and therefore (by Cor. 1. Prop. 8.) the power, and the actions of the impediment, are as FG , FE , EG respectively, when they are in equilibrio.

45. Cor. 1. The power acting perpendicular to the base, is to the force acting against either side, in direction parallel to the base FG , or perpendicular to the axis DE , as the base FG , to the height ED , when the wedge is in equilibrio; or the power is to the whole force against both sides (in direction parallel to FG) as the back FG , to twice the height DE .

For the force EG may be divided into the two ED , DG (by Cor. 3. Prop. 7.) Then since (by this Prop.) EG is the force acting in direction CB , ED will be the force acting in direction DG .

Cor. 2. The sharper the wedge, or the more acute its angle, the easier it will divide any thing, or overcome any resistance.

S E C T. IV.

The descent of bodies upon inclined planes, and in curve surfaces; and the motion of pendulums.

P R O P. XXXI.

If a heavy body W , be sustained upon an inclined plane AC , by a power acting in a direction parallel to that plane, then FIG. 46.

The weight of the body,	}	the length AC ,
The power that sustains it,		the height CB ,
And its pressure against the plane,		and the base AB ,
Are, respectively, as		of the plane.

Draw BD perpendicular to AC ; then the force of gravity tends perpendicular to the horizon, or parallel to CB , and the direction of the power is parallel to DC , and the pressure against the plane is (by Prop. 9.) parallel to DB ; and therefore their quantities are respectively as the three lines CB , CD , BD , (by Prop. 8.); that is, by similar triangles, as AC , CB , and AB .

Cor. 1. The weight, power, and pressure on the plane, are respectively, as radius, the sine, and cosine of the plane's elevation.

For the sides of a triangle are as the sines of the opposite angles.

Cor. 2. The relative weight of a body, to make it run down an inclined plane, is as the height directly, and length reciprocally, $\frac{BC}{AC}$; or it is as the sine of the plane's elevation.

Cor. 3. If a cylinder be sustained upon an inclined plane, by a power drawing one end of a rope parallel to the plane, whilst the other end is fixed, this power is to the weight of the cylinder, as half the height to the length of the plane. 47.

For half the relative weight of the cylinder is sustained by the other end of the rope which is fixed.

SCHOL.

S C H O L.

FIG. If it be required to find the position of the plane AC , whose
 46. height BC is given, so that the given weight W may be raised through the length of the plane AC , in the least time possible, by any given power P , acting in the direction DC ; make $AC = \frac{2W}{P} \times BC$, and you have your desire.

P R O P. XXXII.

46. If a heavy body W be sustained upon an inclined plane AC , by a power acting parallel to the horizon, then,

The weight of the body,	} the base AB ,
The power that sustains it,	
The pressure against the plane,	
Are, respectively, as	
	the height CB ,
	and the length AC ,
	of the plane.

For the body is sustained by three forces, the power, the gravity, and re-action of the plane; the weight is perpendicular to AB , the power is perpendicular to CB , and the pressure is perpendicular to AC . Therefore (by Cor. 1. Prop. 8.) these forces are as AB , CB , AC .

Cor. Hence the pressure on the plane, the power and the weight, are respectively as radius, the sine and the cosine of the plane's elevation.

P R O P. XXXIII.

48. If a heavy body W be sustained upon an inclined plane AC , by a
 49. power P acting in any given direction WP ; and if BED be let fall perpendicular on WP , then,

Power P ,	} DB ,
Weight of the body W ,	
Pressure upon the plane,	
Will be, respectively, as	
	AB ,
	AD .

For

For since BD is perpendicular to the direction of the power, FIG.
 AB to the direction of gravity, and AD to the direction of the 48.
 pressure on the plane; therefore (by Cor. 1. Prop. 8.) these 49.
 forces will be respectively as BD , AB , AD , when they are in
 equilibrio.

Cor. 1. The power, weight, and pressure against the plane, are
 respectively as the sine of the plane's elevation, cosine of the angle of
 traction CWP , and the cosine of the direction of the power above
 the horizon.

The angle of traction is the angle that the direction of the
 power makes with the plane. And in the triangle ABD , the
 sides are as the sines of the opposite angles, where $\angle D =$
 complement of DWP .

Cor. 2. Hence whether the line of direction of the power be ele-
 vated above, or depressed below the plane, if the angles of traction
 be equal, equal powers will sustain the weight; but the pressure is
 greater when the line of direction runs below the plane.

Cor. 3. The power P is least when the line of direction is parallel
 to the plane, and infinite when perpendicular to it, and equal to
 the weight, when perpendicular to the horizon.

Cor. 4. If a weight upon an inclined plane be in equilibrio with 50.
 another hanging freely, their perpendicular velocities will be reci-
 procally as their quantities of matter.

For let the weight W be made to descend to A , and draw
 Wr perpendicular to AE , and Wt , Dv to AB , then the weight
 P will have ascended a height $= Ar$, which is its perpendicular
 ascent, and Wt is the perpendicular descent of W . The figures
 $Arwt$ and $AEDv$ are similar, as are also the triangles AEB ,
 DvB . Whence $Wt : Ar :: Dv : AE :: DB : AB ::$ (by this
 Prop.) $P : W$.

Cor. 5. And therefore if any two bodies be in equilibrio upon two
 inclined planes, their perpendicular velocities will be reciprocally as
 their quantities of matter.

P R O P. XXXIV.

FIG. 51. *The space which a body (descending from rest) describes upon an inclined plane, is to the space which a body falling perpendicularly describes in the same time, as the height of the plane CB to its length AC .*

The force wherewith a body endeavours to descend upon an inclined plane is equal to the power that sustains it, and (by Prop. 31.) that power is to the weight of the body as CB to CA . Therefore the body is urged upon the plane, by an uniformly accelerating force, which is to the force of gravity as CB to CA . But (by Prop. 5.) the motion generated in the same time and in the same body is as the force, that is (since the body is given) the velocity is as the force. And (by Prop. 3.) the spaces uniformly described with the last velocities will be as these velocities; and (by Cor. 1. Prop. 6.) these spaces are double the spaces described by the accelerating forces. Therefore the spaces described on the plane and in the perpendicular, are as the last velocities, or as the forces, that is as CB to CA .

Cor. 1. Hence if BD be let fall perpendicular to AC , then in the time a body falls through the height CB , another body, descending along the inclined plane, will run through the space CD .

For these spaces are as CA to CB , that is, as CB to CD , by similar triangles.

Cor. 2. The velocity acquired upon an inclined plane, is to the velocity acquired in the same time by falling perpendicularly, as CB to CA , or as CD to CB .

Cor. 3. The space described by a body moving down any plane in a given time, is as the sine of the plane's elevation.

For if CB be given, CD is as the sine of CBD or CAB .

Cor. 4. The spaces described by a body descending on any given plane, are as the squares of the times.

P R O P.

P R O P. XXXV.

The time of a body's descending through the plane CD, is to the time of falling through the perpendicular height CE as the length of the plane DC, to the height CE. FIG. 51.

For DE, AB being perpendicular to CB, and BD to AC, the time of descending through CD or the perpendicular CB: time of descending through CE :: (by Prop. 14.) $\sqrt{CB} : \sqrt{CE} : CD : CE$.

Cor. If the body be made to move back again with the velocity acquired in descending, it will ascend to the same height on the plane, and in the same time.

For it will be uniformly retarded in ascending; and in all points will have the same velocity in ascending as descending.

S C H O L.

Since the force by which bodies descend down an inclined plane, is a uniformly accelerative force; therefore whatever is demonstrated of falling bodies in Sect. II. holds equally true, in regard to the motion of bodies upon an inclined plane; substituting the relative weight upon the plane, instead of the absolute weight of the body.

Hence therefore a body projected on an inclined plane will describe a parabola. And if the velocity of projection upon the plane, be to the velocity of a projectile in the air, as the relative gravity on the plane, to the absolute gravity, and both projected at the same obliquity, the same parabola will be described in both cases.

P R O P. XXXVI.

A body acquires the same velocity in descending down an inclined plane CD, as by falling perpendicularly through the height of that plane CE. 51.

For draw DB perpendicular to CD, and the bodies will descend through CD, BC in the same time; then (by Cor. 2. Prop. 34.)
H velocity

FIG. velocity in D : velocity in B :: CE : CD , and (Cor. 1. Prop. 14.)

51. velocity in B : velocity in E :: $\sqrt{CB}$: $\sqrt{CE}$:: CD : CE .
Therefore velocity in D : velocity in E :: CE : CE , and therefore the velocities in D and E are equal.

Cor. 1. A body acquires the same velocity in falling from any height, whether it falls perpendicularly, or down an inclined plane of equal height.

Cor. 2. Hence the velocities acquired by heavy bodies falling from the same height, to the same horizontal right line, on any planes whatever, are equal among themselves.

Cor. 3. If the velocities be equal at any two equal altitudes D, E , they will be equal at any other two equal altitudes A, B , and acquire equal increases of velocity in passing through EB, DA of equal heights.

Cor. 4. The velocities acquired by descending down any planes whatever are as the square roots of the heights.

P R O P. XXXVII.

52. In a circle whose diameter CB is perpendicular to the horizon, a body will descend through any cord CD or DB , in the same time as it will descend perpendicularly through the diameter CB .

For the angle at D is right ; therefore (by Cor. 1. Prop. 34.) the time of descending through CD will be equal to the time of descending perpendicularly through CB . Draw CE parallel to DB , then will CE be equal to DB ; and a body will descend through the cords CE, DB in the same time. But the time of descending through CE is the same as falling through the diameter. Therefore the time of descending through any cord CD, DB , is the same as falling through the diameter CB .

Cor. 1. The times of descending through all the cords of a circle, drawn from either point C or B , are equal among themselves.

Cor. 2. The velocity acquired by descending through any cord CD , or DB , is as the length of the cord.

For

For draw DF perpendicular to CB , then $CD = \sqrt{CB \times CF}$, FIG. and $DB = \sqrt{CB \times BF}$; and (by Prop. 36.) a body acquires 52. the same velocity in descending through CD , as in falling through CF , but this (by Cor. 1. Prop. 14.) is as $\sqrt{CF}$, that is as CD . Also a body acquires the same velocity through DB as FB , and that is as $\sqrt{BF}$, or as DB .

Cor. 3. But a body will descend sooner through the small arch of a circle, than through its cord TB .

For if BG , TG be two tangents, then the relative gravity at T in the arch and cord, will (by Cor. 1. Prop. 31.) be as the fines of the angles TGO , TBO , or as BT and TG or BG , that is nearly as 2 to 1 when the arch is very small. And the accelerative force in the circle being double to that in the cord; therefore the velocity will be greater in the arch, and the time of description shorter, though their lengths are nearly the same.

P R O P. XXXVIII.

If a body descends freely along any curve surface, and another body 53. descends from the same height in a perpendicular right line, their velocities will be equal at all equal altitudes.

Let a body descend from A towards C perpendicular to the horizon BC , and another descend through the curve surface AKB ; divide AC into an infinite number of equal parts, at the points D , E , F , &c. to which draw lines parallel to BC , intersecting the curve in I , K , G , &c. then the curve line AKB will be divided into an infinite number of parts, IK , KG , &c. which may be taken for right lines; or the curve surface into an infinite number of planes, joining at I , K , G , &c.

Now if the velocities be supposed to be equal in any correspondent points as I and D , then (by Cor. 3. Prop. 36.) they will be equal in K and E , after the descent through IK ; and being equal in K and E , they will also be equal in G and F , after the descent through KG , and so on. Therefore since the motion begins in A , they will acquire equal velocities in descending through the first plane, and likewise through the 2d, 3d, 4th, &c. And therefore the velocities will be equal in all correspondent points I and D , K and E , G and F , &c. and at B and C .

H 2

Cor.

FIG. 53. Cor. 1. Therefore if a body be suspended by a string, and by oscillating describes any curve AB ; or if it is any way forced to move in any polished, and perfectly smooth surface AB , whilst another body ascends or descends in a right line; then if their velocities be equal at any one equal altitude, they will be equal at all other equal altitudes.

For the same thing is effected by the string of the pendulous body as by the smooth surface of a polished body.

Cor. 2. Hence a body oscillating in any curve line whatever, acquires the same velocity in the curve as if it had fallen perpendicularly from the same height. And therefore the velocity in any point of the curve is as the square root of the height descended.

Cor. 3. And a body after its descent through any curve, will ascend to the same height in a similar and equal curve, or even in any curve whatever. And the velocities will be equal at all equal altitudes. And the ascent and descent will be in the same time, if the curves are the same.

For the forces that generated the motion in descending, will equally destroy it in ascending, and therefore they will lose equal velocities by ascending equal heights. And if the curves are similar and equal, every particle of the curve will be described with the same velocity, and therefore in the same time, whether ascending or descending.

Cor. 4. This Prop. is equally true, whether the curve AKB be in one plane perpendicular to the horizon, or in several planes IK , KG , &c. winding about in nature of a spiral.

P R O P. XXXIX.

54. The times of descent through two similar parts of similar curves, are in the subduplicate ratio of their lengths, ab , AB .

Divide both curves into an equal number of infinitely small parts, similar to each other; and let bc , BC , be two of them, similarly posited; and draw rb , RB , perpendicular to ab , AH . By Prop. III. the space described is as the time and velocity, and the time of describing any space, is as the space directly and velocity reciprocally. By Cor. 2. Prop. 38. the velocities in

in b and B are as $\sqrt{rb}$ and $\sqrt{RB}$, that is because arb , ARB FIG. are similar, as $\sqrt{ab}$ and $\sqrt{AB}$. Therefore the time of de- 54. scribing bc : to time of describing BC :: $\frac{bc}{\sqrt{ab}}$: $\frac{BC}{\sqrt{AB}}$:: $\frac{ab}{\sqrt{ab}}$: $\frac{AB}{\sqrt{AB}}$:: $\sqrt{ab}$: $\sqrt{AB}$:: $\sqrt{ad}$: $\sqrt{AD}$, because the curves are similarly divided. Whence, by composition, the whole time of describing ab : whole time of describing AB :: is in the same given ratio of $\sqrt{ab}$: $\sqrt{AB}$, or $\sqrt{ad}$: $\sqrt{AD}$.

Cor. 1. Hence if two pendulums describe similar arches, the times of their vibrations are as the square roots of their lengths; or the lengths are as the squares of the times of vibration.

For let bd , HD , be the lengths of the pendulums, then because the figures are similar, it is ad : AD :: bd : HD .

Cor. 2. If a pendulum vibrates in a circle, the velocity in the lowest point is as the cord of the arch it described in descending.

For (by *Cor. 2. Prop. 38.*) it acquires the same velocity in the arch as in the cord; and (by *Cor. 2. Prop. 37.*) the velocity in the cord is as the cord.

Cor. 3. The lengths of pendulums vibrating in similar arches, are reciprocally proportional to the squares of the number of their vibrations, in a given time.

P R O P. XL.

If a pendulum vibrates in a cycloid, the time of one vibration is 55. to the time of a body's falling perpendicularly through half the length of the pendulum, as the circumference of a circle to the diameter.

Let ADa be the cycloid, FD its axis, FGD the generating circle. Let the body descend from H , and in vibrating describe the arch HDb . Divide HD into innumerable small parts, and let Bb be one of them. Through H , B , b , draw HMb , BL , bI , perpendicular to the axis FD . About the diameter, MD describe the semi-circle MLD ; and from its center Q , draw QL , also draw LP parallel to MD , and DE , DG , GE .

The triangles CDG , GDE are similar, and $CD \times DE = GD^2$.

Also

FIG. Also the triangles QLN and ILP are similar, and $NL : PL ::$

55. $QL : LI$, and $2NL : Nn :: MD : LI$. And since by the nature of the cycloid, the tangent in B is parallel to the arch GD , therefore Gg is equal and parallel to Bb .

Now suppose a body to descend from E through the inclined plane ED ; since this is a motion uniformly accelerated, therefore (by Cor. 1. Prop. 6.) it would, in the time of its fall, describe $2ED$, with the velocity acquired in D . And since (by Cor. Prop. 3.) the times are as the spaces directly and velocities reciprocally, and (by Cor. 2. Prop. 38.) the velocities are as the square roots of the heights; therefore it will be, as time of describing ED : time in $Cc :: \frac{2ED}{\sqrt{MD}} : \frac{Cc}{\sqrt{MN}} :: \frac{2MD}{\sqrt{MD}}$

or $2\sqrt{MD} : \frac{Nn}{\sqrt{MN}} :: 2\sqrt{MD \times MN} : Nn$, by similar triangles.

Again, when the velocity is given, the time is as the space described. Therefore it will be, as time in Cc : time in $Bb :: Cc : Bb$ or $Gg :: CD : GD$ or $\sqrt{CD \times DE} :: \sqrt{CD} : \sqrt{DE} :: \sqrt{DN} : \sqrt{DM}$, by similar triangles. Therefore ex aequo, time in ED : time in $Bb :: 2\sqrt{MD \times MN \times DN} : Nn \sqrt{DM} :: 2\sqrt{MN \times DN}$ or $2NL : Nn :: MD : LI$. Therefore, by composition it is, as time in ED : time in the arch $Hb :: MD$: arch MI . And as the time in ED : whole time in $HD :: MD ::$ femi-circumference MLD .

And since the time of descending through HD is equal to the time of ascending through Db ; and (by Prop. 37.) the time of descending through ED is equal to the time in the diameter FD ; and $2FD$ is $= DV$, the length of the pendulum (being the radius of curvature in D); therefore as the time of falling through half the length of the pendulum FD : time in HDb , or time of one vibration :: diameter MD : circumference $2MLD$.

Cor. 1. Hence all vibrations great and small are performed in equal times. And in unequal arches, the velocities generated, and the parts described, and those to be described in the same time, will always be as the whole arches; and in any arch HD , the accelerative force at any point B , will be as the length BD from the bottom.

For the descent through HD is always the same, wherever the point H is taken. Also (by the nature of the cycloid) the tangent at B is parallel to GD , and $BD = 2DG$. And (by Cor. 2. Prop. 31.) the relative weight on GD (which is the accelerating force along GD , or the tangent at B) is as $\frac{ND}{GD}$, that is as $\frac{GD}{FD}$, or $\frac{2GD}{FD}$, or as $\frac{BD}{FD}$, or as BD because FD

is

is given. Whence the accelerating force being always as the distance from the bottom, therefore, in any two arches, the velocities generated every moment, and the parts continually described, will be as these forces; that is, as the whole arches: and consequently the spaces described, and the velocities generated in any time, will be as the whole arches; and therefore the parts to be described will also be as the wholes.

Cor. 2. The time of descent in HB, to the time of descent in HD, is as the arch ML, to the semi-circumference MLD.

Cor. 3. The velocity of the pendulum in any point B, is as $\sqrt{DH^2 - DB^2}$, or $\sqrt{HB \times BDb}$.

For (by Cor. 1. Prop. 14.) the square of the velocity in B is as MN, that is as MD—ND, or $\frac{ED^2 - GD^2}{DF}$ or $DH^2 - DB^2$; because $DH = 2DE$, and $DB = 2GD$, by the nature of the cycloid; and DF is given.

Cor. 4. If the length of the pendulum VD be made double the axis FD; and ARV, arV, be two semi-cycloids equal to AHD, and so placed that the vertex (as D) be at A and a, then the pendulum VH vibrating between the cycloidal cheeks ARV, arV, the point H will describe the cycloid AHDba, and the time of its vibration will be $3.1416 \times$ time of falling through FD, half the length of the pendulum.

All this follows from the nature of the cycloid.

Cor. 5. Hence also it appears from experiments on pendulums, that at the surface of the earth a heavy body will descend through a space of $16\frac{1}{2}$ English feet nearly, in one second of time.

For it is found by observation upon clocks, that a pendulum 39.13 inches long vibrates once in a second; therefore $\frac{1}{3.1416} =$ time of a body's falling through FD or $\frac{39.13}{2}$ inches. And consequently (by Prop. 14.) the space fallen through in 1 second will be $\frac{39.13}{2} \times \frac{1}{3.1416} = 93.096$ inches = 16.0913 feet. Yet a pendulum vibrating freely will be something longer in vibrating than a clock; because the palate wheel of the clock acting against it, takes off something from its ascent, and makes it return sooner, or shortens the time.

Cor. 6. Hence also if pendulums of the same quantity of matter and

FIG. and any lengths, be acted on by different forces of gravity, their
 56. lengths will be as the forces of gravity, and the squares of the times of vibration.

For the times of vibration are in a given ratio to the times of descent through half the lengths of the pendulums. And (by Cor. 3. Prop. 5.) if the matter be given, the velocity generated in descending bodies is as the force and time; and (by Prop. 6.) the space descended is as the velocity and time, that is, as the force and square of the time. Therefore half the length of the pendulum is as the force and square of the time of descending half its length; whence the length is as the force and square of the time of vibration.

Cor. 7. From the motion of pendulums it also follows, that in any one place the quantity of matter in any body is proportional to its weight.

For it is certain from experience that pendulums of equal length, whatever quantities of matter they contain, vibrate in the same time. Therefore they will descend through half the length of the pendulum in the same time, and consequently would acquire equal velocities in the same time. Therefore (by Prop. 5.) the velocity and time being given, the quantity of matter is as the force of gravity.

Cor. 8. Hence it also follows, that there are vacuities or empty spaces in bodies. For since (by Cor. 7.) the quantity of matter is as the weight of the body, if it were true that there is an absolute plenum, all bodies of the same bulk must be of equal weight; which is contrary to all experience.

P R O P. XLI.

57. If a pendulum AT oscillates in a circle TRQ , and in the mean time be acted on in the several points T , by a force tending perpendicular to the horizon, which is to the uniform force of gravity, as the arch TR is to the sine TN , the times of all vibrations will be equal, whether greater or lesser.

For from any point T draw TZ perpendicular to the horizon, and TY a tangent to the circle in T ; and let AT express the uniform force of gravity, TZ the variable force at T ; draw ZY perpendicular

perpendicular to TY , then the force TZ will be resolved FIG.
 into the two TY, YZ , of which YZ , acting in direction AT , 57.
 does not at all change the motion of the body, but the force
 TY directly accelerates its motion in the circle TR ; the tri-
 angles ATN, ZTY are similar, and $TZ : TA :: TY : TN$,
 but (by supposition) $TZ : TA :: \text{arch } TR : TN$, therefore
 $TY = \text{arch } TR$: that is, the force TY is as the arch to be de-
 scribed TR ; therefore if AT, At , be let fall together from
 the points T, t , the velocities generated in equal times will
 be as the forces TY, ty , that is, as the arches TR, tR , to be
 described; but the parts described at the beginning of the mo-
 tion, are as the velocities, that is, as the wholes to be described
 at the beginning, and therefore the parts which remain to be
 described, and the subsequent accelerations proportional to these
 parts, are also as the wholes, &c. therefore the velocities ge-
 nerated, and the parts described with these velocities, and the
 parts to be described, are always as the wholes; and therefore
 the parts to be described, being every where as the velocities
 they are described with, will be described in equal times and
 vanish together; that is, the two bodies oscillating will arrive
 at the perpendicular AR together.

Cor. 1. Hence, that the vibrations in a circle may be isochronal,
 the force TZ must be $= \frac{TR}{TN} \times \text{gravity}$.

Cor. 2. Hence if a pendulum vibrates by the force of gravity
 only, the times of vibration, in very small, different arches, will
 be very nearly equal.

For in small arches the ratio of the arch to the sine is nearly
 a ratio of equality.

Cor. 3. But the time of vibration in larger arches, is greater
 than the time in lesser arches of a circle.

For the gravity at T being less than the isochronal force; the
 body will be longer in describing that arch.

Cor. 4. Hence also if a pendulum vibrates in the small arch of a
 circle, the time of one vibration is to the time of a body's falling
 through twice the length of the pendulum, as half the circumference
 of a circle to the diameter.

For AR is the radius of curvature of a cycloid, whose axis
 is $\frac{1}{2}AR$, therefore the circle and cycloid coincide at R , and

FIG. the small arches of both will be described in the same time,
 57. that is, as expressed by Prop. 40. only here we take twice the length of the pendulum and half the circumference, which comes to the same thing, by Cor. 1. Prop. 39.

S C H O L.

In these propositions, the vibrating body is supposed to be very small, and is therefore considered only as a point; but if it be of any determinate bigness, the point to which the length of the pendulum is measured, is not in the middle or centre of gravity of the body, but in another place, and is called the centre of oscillation, as will appear in the VI. Section.

It has been proved, that the same pendulum is longer in vibrating in a large arch of a circle than in a small one; and it may be computed, that if a pendulum vibrates seconds in an extremely small arch, and C be the length in inches, of the cord of any arch A , then $3\frac{1}{2}CC$ will be the seconds lost in 24 hours by vibrating in the arch $2A$.

And if a pendulum vibrates seconds in an arch $2a$, and c be the cord of a , or of half the whole arch, then $3\frac{1}{2} \times CC - cc$ will be the seconds lost in 24 hours, by vibrating in the arch, the cord of whose half is C .

Also if the bob of such a pendulum can be screwed up or down, and you put n = number of threads of the screw contained in an inch, y = time in minutes that the clock gains or loses in 24 hours, then [it follows by the theory of pendulums, that $\frac{2}{37}ny$ will be the number of threads or revolutions of the nut, that the bob is to be let down or raised up, to beat seconds.

S E C T.

S E C T. V.

Of the Centre of Gravity and its Properties.

P R O P. XLII.

If a line be drawn from the centre of gravity of a body perpendicular to the horizon, and this perpendicular falls within the base upon which the body rests, the body will stand, but if it falls without the base it will fall down.

C A S E I.

Let C be the centre of gravity, CD perpendicular to the horizon, falling within the base $BEFG$, draw RC , and suppose the whole body suspended at the point C , then (by def. 12.), the body will be in equilibrio, and remain at rest upon DC ; now take away DC , and suppose the body to be supported only upon the line RC , moveable about R , then (by ax. 8.) the body AB , together with the line RC will endeavour to descend from the position RC towards D ; also for the same reason the body and the line CS will endeavour to descend from the position CS towards D , but as these two motions oppose each other, the body will be sustained by the points R , S , and therefore it will stand; and the same is true of every two opposite points R , S . FIG. 58.

C A S E II.

But if CD fall without the base, then the line RC and the body at C will endeavour to descend towards D ; also the body C and line CS will endeavour to descend towards D likewise, and as this motion does not oppose the other, there will be nothing to support the body, therefore it must necessarily fall towards D . 59.

FIG. Cor. 1. Hence it follows, that if the centre of gravity of a body
59. be supported, the whole body is supported, and the centre of gravity of the body must be esteemed the place of the body; and if it be sustained by any lever or beam, its place is at the point where the beam is cut by a line drawn from the centre of gravity perpendicular to the horizon.

Cor. 2. All the gravity of a body, or the force it endeavours to descend with, is collected into the centre of gravity, and therefore whatever sustains the centre of gravity, sustains the whole weight; and the descent of a body must be estimated by the descent of its centre of gravity.

Cor. 3. Hence also the larger the base is, upon which a body stands, and the further within it the centre of gravity lies, the firmer the body will stand, and the more difficult to be removed. On the contrary, the less the base, or the less the centre of gravity falls within it, so much the easier it is to be moved out of its place.

60. Cor. 4. If a body be laid upon a plane GF, and one end F gradually raised up, the body will slide down the plane, if the perpendicular CD fall within the base, but if it fall without, it will roll down.

PROP. XLIII.

61. The common centre of gravity C of two bodies A, B, is in the right line joining their centres of gravity, and the distance of either body from the common centre of gravity, is reciprocally as the quantity of matter in it.

Let AB be the centres of gravity of A and B, and suppose AB to be an inflexible right line, or lever, and C the fulcrum; then if C be the centre of gravity of the bodies A, B, these bodies (by def. 12.) will be in equilibrio, and consequently (by Cor. 4. Prop. 19.) $AC : CB :: B : A$.

Cor. 1. If there be never so many bodies, the common centre of gravity of them all is in the right line drawn from the centre of gravity of any one, to the centre of gravity of all the rest, and it divides

divides this line into two parts, reciprocally as that body to the sum of all the rest of the bodies. FIG. 61.

For let D be another body, and let B and A be placed in C , then will $C : D :: DE : CE$, and so on for more bodies.

Cor. 2. If several bodies A, B, D, E, F , be in equilibria upon a straight lever AE , then the fulcrum C is at the common centre of gravity of all the bodies. 62.

P R O P. XLIV.

If there be several bodies, A, B, D, E, F , and if any plane PQ be drawn perpendicular to the horizon, the sum of the products of each body multiplied by its distance from that plane, if they are all on one side, or their difference, if on contrary sides, is equal to the sum of all the bodies multiplied by the distance of their common centre of gravity from that plane. 63.

Draw lines perpendicular and parallel to the plane PQ as in the fig. and let C be the centre of gravity, then (by Cor. 3. Prop. 19.) the force of all the bodies to move the plane PQ about R , will be $mD \times D + oE \times E + rF \times F - Ak \times A - Bl \times B$. That is $dC + RC \times D + eC + RC \times E + RC - fC \times F - aC - RC \times A - bC - RC \times B$, or $dC \times D + eC \times E - fC \times F - aC \times A - bC \times B + RC \times D + E + F + A + B$. But because C is the centre of gravity of the bodies, therefore (by Prop. 20.) $dC \times D + eC \times E = fC \times F + aC \times A + bC \times B$, therefore we have $mD \times D + oE \times E + rF \times F - Ak \times A - Bl \times B = RC \times A + B + D + E + F$.

Cor. 1. This Prop. is equally true for any plane whatever; for suppose the plane and the bodies to be put into any oblique position, all the distances will remain the same as before.

Cor. 2. If any plane be drawn through the common centre of gravity C , of any number of bodies A, B, D , &c. and each body be multiplied by the distance of its centre of gravity, from that plane, the sums of the products on each side are equal: $A \times aC + B \times bC + F \times fC = D \times dC + E \times eC$.

For the distance of a body must be estimated by the distance of its centre of gravity.

Cor.

FIG. 63. Cor. 3. Hence also, the sum (or difference) of the products of each particle of a body, multiplied by its distance from any plane whatever, is equal to the whole body multiplied by the distance of its centre of gravity from that plane; and if the plane pass through the centre of gravity, the sums of the products on each side are equal.

Cor. 4. The sum of the forces of a system of bodies is the very same, as if all the bodies were collected into their common centre of gravity, and exerted their several forces there.

For the sum of all the forces is $mD \times D + oE \times E$, &c. or $RC \times A + B + D + E + F$.

Cor. 5. And the same is true of any forces whatever, with regard to the centre of gravity of those forces; and therefore if several forces act in parallel directions, the sum of all these forces will be equivalent to one single force, and their common centre of gravity, the place where it acts.

80. Cor. 6. If a circle be described about the centre of gravity G, of a system of bodies A, B, C, and any point S be taken at pleasure in the circumference, then $SA^2 \times A + SB^2 \times B + SC^2 \times C$, is a given quantity; and the same holds true for the surface of a sphere, and the bodies not all in one plane.

For draw SG, on which let fall the perpendiculars Aa, Bb, Cc, then (by Eucl. II. 12, 13.) $SA^2 \times A + SB^2 \times B + SC^2 \times C = SG^2 + GA^2 + 2SG \times Ga \times A + SG^2 + GB^2 - 2SG \times Gb \times B + SG^2 + GC^2 + 2SG \times Gc \times C$; but (by Cor. 2.) $Ga \times A - Gb \times B + Gc \times C = 0$, and all the rest are given quantities.

P R O P. XLV.

64. If there be several forces in one plane, acting against one another in the point C, whose quantities and directions are CA, CB, CD, CE, CF, and if they keep one another in equilibrio, I say C is the common centre of gravity of all the points A, B, C, D, E; and any one of them as EC being produced, will pass through the centre of gravity G of all the rest.

Since

Since all the forces are in equilibrio, the sum of the forces *FIG.* acting against *EC* will destroy its effects, and act against it in 64. the same line of direction.

Upon *EC* let fall the perpendiculars *Aa*, *Bb*, *Dd*, *Ff*. Then any force *AC* is divided into two *Aa*, *aC*. Now as the point *C* is in equilibrio, all the perpendicular forces *Aa*, *Bb*, on one side, are equal to all those *Dd*, *Ff*, on the other, by ax. 11. And if the body 1 be supposed to be suspended at *A*, *B*, *D*, *E*, *F*; then since $Aa \times 1 + Bb \times 1 = Dd \times 1 + Ff \times 1$, the centre of gravity of the bodies *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, (and also of all the bodies) is in the line *EC*. Again it follows from the equilibrium of the forces, that $EC + aC = Cb + Cd + Cf$, by ax. 11. And therefore if the body 1 be suspended at the points *E*, *a*, *d*, *b*, *f*, *C* is their centre of gravity; that is, *C* is the centre of gravity of *E*, *A*, *B*, *D*, *F*.

Cor. 1. If *G* be the centre of gravity of *A*, *B*, *D*, *F*, then $EC = CG \times \text{number of points } A, B, D, F$.

For $EC = Cb + Cd + Cf - Ca = CG \times A + B + D + F$, or $4CG$, by Prop. 44.

Cor. 2. Sum of all the perpendiculars on one side, $Aa, Bb =$ sum Dd, Ff , on the other side of *EC*; and the sum of their distances CE, Ca , on one side $=$ sum Cd, Cb, Cf , on the other side of *C*.

P R O P. XLVI.

If a body be acted on by several forces *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, *E*, in the 65. parallel directions *Aa*, *Bb*, &c. and kept in equilibrio, and if any plane *RN* be drawn from any point *R*, the sums of the forces on each side are equal, $A + D = B + C + E$, and the sum of the products on each side equal to the like sum of the products on the other side, $Ra \times A + Rd \times D = Rb \times B + Rc \times C - Re \times E$, and the contrary, where any product lying the contrary way from *R* must be taken negative.

For suppose *RN* to be the plane, acted on by these forces, then (by Cor. 5. Prop. 44.) the effect of the forces *A* and *D* acting at *a* and *d*, is the same as if they both acted at *O*, their centre

FIG. centre of gravity; and the effect of B, C, E , acting at b, c, e , 65. is the same as if they all acted at their centre of gravity, which, because the body is unmoved, is the same point O ; and therefore, because of the equilibrium, $A + D = B + C + E$, for the quantity of force.

In respect to their places, because O is the centre of gravity of A and D , as well as of B, C , and E ; therefore (by Prop. 44.) $Ra \times A + Rd \times D = RO \times A + D = RO \times B + C + E = Rb \times B + Rc \times C + Re \times E$; and on the contrary, if these forces be equal, the body will be in equilibrio, by ax. 9.

66. Cor. 1. If a body $FGIH$ be at rest whilst it is acted upon by several forces, in the same plane, whose quantities and directions are pA, qB, rC, sD, tE , cutting any line RN drawn in the body at $p, q, \&c.$ and the perpendiculars $Aa, Bb, \&c.$ are drawn, then I say, 1. The sums of the perpendicular forces on each side are equal, $Aa + Dd = Bb + Cc + Ee$. 2. The sums of the contrary forces in direction of the line RN are equal, $pa + qb = rc + sd + te$. 3. The sums of the rectangles on each side, from any point R , are equal, $Rp \times Aa + Rs \times Dd = Rq \times Bb + Rr \times Cc + Rt \times Ee$. But where the points lie the contrary way from R , the rectangles must be negative; and when all these are equal the body is at rest.

For since it is the same thing whether any force A act at A , at F or at p , we will suppose it to act at p ; then if the oblique force pA be divided into the two pa, aA , and the same for the rest, then the sum of all the forces pa must be equal to the sum of all the contrary forces cr , by ax. 11. The rest follows from this Prop.

Cor. 2. And if a body be kept in equilibrio by several forces acting at different points, and in different directions, either in the same plane, or in different planes, it will still be in equilibrio; by the same forces acting from any one point, and in directions respectively parallel to the former.

For in the same plane the forces parallel and perpendicular to RN will remain the same as before; and when the directions of any of the forces are out of this plane, all these extraneous forces may be reduced to others, one part acting in the plane, the other perpendicular to it, and both these remain the same in quantity as before; and since the forces acting in the plane kept one another in equilibrio at first, they will do the same still; and as the parts perpendicular to this plane also kept one another in equilibrio at first, they will do

do the same when applied to their common centre of gravity, FIG. 66.
or to any other point.

Cor. 3. If several forces acting after any manner keep a body unmoved, and any plane whatever be drawn, and the vagrant forces be all reduced to that plane, then all the perpendicular forces on one side, are equal to those on the other, and their centres of gravity fall in the same point. When this does not happen in all planes, the body will be moved some way or other.

PROP. XLVII.

To find the centre of gravity of a system of bodies, A, B, C.

Draw any plane ST , and from the centres of gravity of all the bodies, draw perpendiculars to this plane, Aa, Bb, Cc , then (by *Cor. 3. Prop. 19.*) the forces of A, B, C , at the distances Aa, Bb, Cc , from the plane, will be $A \times Aa, B \times Bb, C \times Cc$. Let G be the centre of gravity, then the sum of the forces $A \times Aa + B \times Bb + C \times Cc$ must be $= A + B + C \times Gg$, the power of all the bodies situated in G (by *Prop. 44.*) whence the distance of the centre of gravity from the plane. that is $Gg = \frac{Aa \times A + Bb \times B + Cc \times C}{A + B + C}$:

where if any of the bodies be situate on the other side of the plane, the correspondent rectangles will be negative.

And if the distance be in like manner found from the plane TV , perpendicular to ST , the point G will be determined by making the parallelogram TG with the respective distances from those planes.

Cor. 1. Let b be any body, p any particle in it, d its distance from a given plane, then the distance of its centre of gravity from that plane is $= \frac{\text{Sum of all the } dp}{b}$.

Cor. 2. To find the centre of gravity of an irregular plane figure. 68. Suspend it by the string AEB , at E ; and draw the plumb line ECF , then suspend it by another point of the string as D , and draw another plumb line through E , to intersect CF , and the point of intersection is the center of gravity.

K

Cor.

FIG. Cor. 3. To find the centre of gravity of a flexible body; lay it up-
 68. on a board whose centre of gravity is known, lay the centre of gravity of the board upon the edge of a prism, and lay the body upon it, and remove it back or forwards, till it be in equilibrio upon the board.

S C H O L.

The centres of gravity of several planes and solids have been determined to be as follows :

1. If two lines be drawn from two angles of a *triangle*, to the middle of the opposite sides, the point of intersection is the centre of gravity. Therefore the distance of the centre of gravity from the vertex, is $\frac{2}{3}$ of the line bisecting the opposite side.
69. 2. In a *Trapezium* $ABCD$, the centre of gravity is found by dividing it into triangles. Find E, G , the centres of gravity of the triangles ADB, CDB , and F, H , the centres of gravity of ABC, ADC , then draw EG, FH , to intersect in O , the centre of gravity of the Trapezium.
3. The centre of gravity of a *right line, parallelogram, cylinder, and prism*, is in the middle.
4. For the *arch of a circle*, as $\frac{1}{2}$ arch : sine of $\frac{1}{2}$ arch :: radius : distance of its centre of gravity from the centre.
5. For the *sector of a circle*, as arch : cord :: $\frac{2}{3}$ radius : distance of its centre of gravity from the centre.
6. For the *parabolic space*, the distance of the centre of gravity from the vertex is $\frac{3}{8}$ the axis.
7. In the *cone and pyramid*, the distance of the centre of gravity from the vertex is $\frac{3}{4}$ the axis.
8. In a *paraboloid*, the distance of the centre of gravity from the vertex is $\frac{3}{8}$ the axis.
9. For the *segment of a sphere*, let r = radius, x = height of the segment, then the distance of the centre of gravity from the vertex is $\frac{8r-3x}{12r-4x}x$.

P R O P. XLVIII.

If two or more bodies move uniformly in any given directions, their common centre of gravity will either be at rest, or move uniformly in a right line.

Case

Case 1. Let one body stand still, and the other move directly FIG. 69.
to or from it in a right line, then since the centre of gravity divides the distance in a given ratio, and the distance increases uniformly, therefore that centre moves uniformly. Now suppose the other body likewise to move in the same right line, and any quantity of space to move along with it, then since the body is relatively at rest in this space, the centre of gravity, in regard to that space, moves uniformly, to which adding or subtracting the uniform motion of that space, the centre of gravity will still move uniformly.

Case 2. Let the bodies move in one plane, in the directions 70.
 DE, AB ; produce their lines of direction till they meet in D , and when one body is in D and E , let the other be in A and B respectively. Let H be their centre of gravity when in D and A , and K when in E and B , and draw HK , and make $BP = AD$, and draw EP and KL parallel to AB , then DE is to AB or DP , in the given ratio of the motion of the bodies; and since the $\angle EDP$ is given, therefore all the angles of the triangle EDP are given, and DP will be to PE in a given ratio. But by similar triangles PE is to PL in the given ratio of BE to BK , by the property of the centre of gravity; therefore DP is to PL in a given ratio, and all the angles in the triangle DPL are given, and therefore the angle PDL ; therefore the point L is always in the line DL given in position, and by the nature of the centre of gravity, $DA : DH :: EB : EK :: PB$ or $DA : LK$, therefore $DH = LK$, whence $DHKL$ is a parallelogram, and HK parallel to DL , and therefore the angle BHK is given, and the centre of gravity K is always in the right line HK given by position; and because all the angles of the triangles DPL , and DLE are given, therefore the lines DP, DE, DL , that is, AB, DE, HK are in a given ratio, and consequently the point K moves uniformly along the right line HK , and the demonstration is in the same manner, if one of the bodies B moves from B towards A .

Case 3. Let the paths of the bodies AB, DE be in different 71.
planes; through the path AB draw a plane Bde parallel to the path DE , and thro' DE draw the plane $DdeE$ perpendicular to Bde , produce AB to d , and let Dd, Ee be perpendicular to de , then the planes DdA, EeB will be perpendicular to the plane edB ; let one body be in A and B , when the other is in D and E respectively. Now if the body at D were to move in de , then

K 2

by

FIG. 71. by Case 2d, the centre of gravity would move uniformly along some right line HK ; through HK erect the plane $HKkb$ perpendicular to HBK ; then by similar triangles, and the nature of the centre of gravity, $Ab : bD :: (AH : Hd :: BK : Ke ::) BK : kE$; and bk is the path of the centre of gravity of the bodies moving in AB, DE . Likewise $Dd : Hb :: Ad : AH :: Be : BK :: eE$ or $Dd : Kk$; therefore $Hb = Kk$, and bk is equal and parallel to HK , therefore the centre of gravity of the bodies (moving in AB, DE) moves uniformly through the right line bk .

Case 4. The common centre of gravity of two bodies, and a third, is either at rest, or moves uniformly in a right line; for these two may be put into the place of their centre of gravity, which before moved uniformly, and then the centre of gravity of the three will move uniformly; likewise the common centre of gravity of three bodies and a fourth, will move uniformly in a right line, and so on.

P R O P. XLIX.

The common centre of gravity of two or more bodies does not change its state of motion or rest, by any actions of the bodies among themselves, or by any forces they exert upon one another.

Suppose any space in which the bodies are inclosed to move uniformly along with the centre of gravity of the bodies, before the actions of the bodies upon one another, then the centre of gravity is at rest in that space. Now if two bodies mutually act upon one another, since their distances from their centre of gravity are reciprocally as the bodies, and as action and re-action are equal, the bodies will approach or recede from that centre by spaces which are in the same ratio, therefore the centre of gravity will still remain at rest. And in a system of several bodies, because the common centre of gravity of any two acting mutually upon each other is at rest, and the actions of all the bodies being the sum of the actions of every two, it is evident the centre of gravity of all the bodies remains the same, as if they did not act at all upon one another, and therefore is at rest in this space, or moves uniformly forward along with it.

Cor.

Cor. 1. Hence if a body be projected into free space, if it have any circular motion, this motion will be performed uniformly about an axis passing through the center of gravity. FIG. 71.

For if every particle of the body retained the distinct motion first impressed on it the common centre of gravity of the whole would move in a right line, by the last Prop. And since the cohesion of the parts of the body retains the particles in one mass, therefore (by this Prop.) the motion of the centre of gravity is not altered; which it would be if the axis of circular motion did not pass through the centre of gravity, but through some other point.

Cor. 2. And if a body be hurled into the air, its centre of gravity will either move in a right line, or describe a parabola, whilst that body revolves about an axis passing through the centre of gravity, if it have any circular motion.

P R O P. L.

The sum of the motions of several bodies in any given direction, is the same as the motion of all the bodies in the same direction, moved with the velocity of the common centre of gravity. 72.

Let the bodies A, B , move round the center of gravity C at rest, to the places a, b ; draw BCA, bCa . Then since $A : B :: BC : AC :: bc : ac$, therefore the triangles ACa, BCb , are similar, and $\angle bBc = CAa$, therefore Bb is parallel to Aa , and the bodies move in contrary directions. Also since $Aa : Bb :: AC : CB :: B : A$, or $Aa \times A = Bb \times B$; therefore the motions of A, B , in contrary directions, are equal, or their motion the same way is 0. Now let the space and bodies moving in it, be moved in any direction with any velocity v , it is manifest the motion of each body in that direction will be greater than before, by the quantity of matter $\times$ velocity. Therefore the sum of the motions is now $vA + vB$ or $\times vA + B$, that is, equal to the sum of the bodies $\times$ velocity of the centre of gravity.

After the same manner, the motion of 3 bodies is the same as the motion of two of them, moved with the velocity of their common centre of gravity, together with the motion of the third,

FIG. 72. third; that is (by what has been shewn) equal to the sum of all the three, moved with the velocity of the centre of gravity of all the three; and so for more bodies.

Cor. The centre of gravity of a body must be taken for the place of the body; and the motion of any body, or of any system of bodies, must be estimated by the motion of the centre of gravity.

P R O P. LI.

If two weights on any machine keep one another in equilibrio, if they be any how raised or moved by help of the machine, the centre of gravity of the weight and power will always be in the same horizontal right line.

For in the lever the centre of gravity is at the fulcrum, and therefore it neither ascends nor descends. In the wheel and axle, and in the pulley or any combination of pulleys, the weight and power approach or recede from each other, by spaces which are reciprocally as the bodies, and therefore their centre of gravity is at rest. And upon any inclined plane the perpendicular velocities of the power and weight (by Cor. 4. Prop. 33.) are reciprocally as their quantities, and the distance of the centre of gravity from each, being the same in ratio, is also at rest; and universally in any combination of these, or any machine whatever, where the equilibrium continues, the ascent and descent of the power and weight being reciprocally as their quantities, the centre of gravity neither ascends nor descends.

P R O P. LII.

73. *If a heavy body AB be suspended by two ropes AC, BD, a right line perpendicular to the horizon passing through the intersection F, of the ropes, will also pass through the centre of gravity G of the body.*

For continue the lines AC, BD to F, then it is the same thing whether the lines that sustain the body act at C and D or at F, in the same directions; suppose therefore that the body AFB is suspended at F, then since (by ax. 7.) the body will descend

descend as low as it can get, and (by Cor. Prop. 50.) the centre of gravity must be taken for the place of the body; therefore the centre of gravity G will be in the line FG perpendicular to the horizon; and it is the same thing if AC , BD , intersect in a point F below the body, for the body cannot be supported except the centre of gravity G be in the perpendicular GF . FIG. 73.

Cor. 1. Hence, if GN be drawn parallel to AC , the weight of the body, the forces acting at G and D , are respectively as FG , GN , and FN , or as the sines of the angles AFB , GFB , and GFA .

Cor. 2. The lines AC , DB and FG , are all in one plane perpendicular to the horizon.

Cor. 3. If the centre of gravity falls not in the line FG , the body will not rest till it fall in that line.

P R O P. LIII.

If any body whatever, as BC , or any beam loaded with a weight, be supported by two planes AB , CD , at C and B , and from the points C , B , the lines CF , BF , be drawn perpendicular to these planes, and from the intersection F the line FH be drawn perpendicular to the horizon, it will pass through the centre of gravity G of the body. 74.

For since the body is sustained by the planes at B , C , and these planes re-act against the body in the perpendicular directions BF , CF , therefore it is the same thing as if the body was sustained by the two ropes BF , CF , and consequently (by Prop. last) FH will pass through G the center of gravity of the whole weight.

Cor. 1. If EG be drawn parallel to CF , then the whole weight, the pressure upon the planes CD , AB , are respectively as FG , EG , EF , and in these very directions, or as the sines of the angles BFC , BFG , and CFG .

Cor. 2. If the line FG drawn (from the intersection of the perpendiculars FC , FB) perpendicular to the horizon, does not pass through the centre of gravity the body will not be sustained, but will move till the centre of gravity fall in that line.

Cor.

FIG. *Cor. 3.* Hence if the position of one plane CD be given, and the position of the body CB , and its centre of gravity G , the position of the other plane AB may be found, by which the body will be supported, by drawing CF perpendicular to CD , and GF perpendicular to the horizon, and from F drawing FB ; then BA perpendicular to it is the other plane.

S C H O L.

Some people have objected against the truth of the two last propositions, as well as some others, though demonstrably proved. But this arises only from their own ignorance of the principles. They that have a mind may see this very proposition demonstrated five or six different ways in Prop. XXIX. of the small Treatise of Mechanics, published in Vol. VII. of the Cyclomathefis.

P R O P. LIV.

75. If a heavy body HD , whose centre of gravity is G , be sustained by three forces A, B, C , in one plane, acting in directions AH, BI, CD , and if FGP be drawn perpendicular to the horizon, and CD produced to cut it in P , and if AH, BI produced, intersect in O , then if OP be drawn, and if EP, OF , be drawn parallel to AO, PC ; then I say the weight of the body, the three forces A, B, C , are respectively as FP, EP, EO, OF .

Because the line OP is unmoved, the point O is sustained by three forces in directions OP, OA, OB , which therefore are as the lines OP, EP, OE ; also the point P is sustained by three forces in the directions PO, PC, GP , which therefore are as the lines OP, OF, FP , of which that in direction FP is the weight of the body at G the centre of gravity; and the forces at O and P , in directions OP and PO , are equal and contrary.

Cor. Hence if any other force instead of the weight act at G , in direction GP , then the forces at P, A, B, C , will be respectively as FP, EP, EO, OF .

S C H O L.

If one of the forces be given, all the rest may be found, if they act two and two at different points O, P ; but if five forces act in one plane, two of them must be given.

P R O P.

PROP. LV.

If $EBDF$ be any prismatic solid erected upon a plane AD , and if FI G.
 it be cut by any plane AGH , I say the surface, or solid $GBDH$, 76.
 cut off by this plane, is respectively equal to the surface or solid
 $EBDF$, whose altitude is CI , the line passing through the centre
 of gravity of the base, and parallel to the axis of the solid.

I shall not demonstrate this geometrically by measuring, but mechanically by weighing them. Suppose the periphery, or the base BD , to be divided into an infinite number of equal parts, by planes perpendicular to the horizon, and parallel to the axis of the solid, and to one another; and imagine AD to be a lever, and let each particle be placed on AD where its plane cuts it; then since the force of any particle to move the lever AD is as that particle multiplied by its distance from A , (by Cor. 3. Prop. XIX.) ; therefore the forces of the equal particles at $B, C, D, \&c.$ will be as $AB, AC, AD, \&c.$ and the sum of all as the sum of these lines: and, because C is the centre of gravity of all the particles, therefore the sum of all, $AB, AC, AD, \&c. =$ sum of as many times AC ; that is, (because the parts of the base are given) $= AC \times \text{base}$; but $GB, IC, HD, \&c.$ are as AB, AC, AD ; therefore all the $GB's, IC's, HD's, \&c. =$ whole base $\times IC$; that is, the whole surface or solid $GBDH =$ whole surface or solid $BEFD$.

Cor. 1. If a right line or curve, or any plain figure whether right-lined or curve-lined, revolve about an axis in the plane of the figure, the surface or solid generated, is respectively equal to the surface or solid, whose base is the line or figure given, and height equal to the arch described by the centre of gravity.

Let $BDdb$ be the figure generated; on the base BCD erect 77.
 the surface or solid $BDFE$, and let C be the centre of gravity;
 since the arches Bb, Cc, Dd , are as the radii, AB, AC, AD ,
 that is as BG, CI, DH ; therefore if $CI = Cc$, then will all the
 lines $BG, CI, DH, \&c. =$ all the arches $Bb, Cc, Dd, \&c.$ that
 is, the surface or solid $BDdb = BDHG$, that is (by this Prop.)
 $= BDFE$.

Cor. 2. Also if a curve revolves about any right line drawn through its centre of gravity, the surfaces generated (either by a partial or total revolution) on opposite sides of the line, will be equal.

FIG. For by Cor. 2. Prop. XLIV. each part of the curve multiplied by the distance of its centre of gravity from this line must be equal on both sides; and (by Cor. 2.) each figure generated is equal to the curve multiplied by the arch described at that distance, and these arches (being similar) are as these distances; whence each surface is as the curve multiplied by the distance of its centre of gravity, and therefore they are equal.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Centres of Percussion, Oscillation, and Gyration.

P R O P. LVI.

Let there be any system of bodies A, B, C , considered without weight, FIG. 78.
 and moveable about an axis passing through S , and if any force f can generate the absolute motion m in a given time, if the same force act at P , perpendicular to PS ; the motion generated in the system, in the same time, revolving about the axis at S , will be

$$\frac{A \times SA + B \times SB + C \times SC}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2} \times SP \times m.$$

For suppose PS perpendicular to the axis at S , and to the line of direction PQ , and SA, SB, SC , perpendicular to the axis at S ; and suppose the force f divided into the parts p, q, r , acting separately at P to move A, B, C ; then (by Cor. 3. Prop. XIX.) the bodies A, B, C , will be acted on respectively with the forces $\frac{SP}{SA}p, \frac{SP}{SB}q, \frac{SP}{SC}r$.

Since the angular motion of the whole system is the same; the velocities of A, B, C , are as SA, SB, SC , and their motions as $A \times SA, B \times SB, C \times SC$, and these motions are as their generating forces $\frac{SP}{SA}p, \frac{SP}{SB}q, \frac{SP}{SC}r$. Whence p, q, r , are as $\frac{A \times SA^2}{SP}, \frac{B \times SB^2}{SP}, \frac{C \times SC^2}{SP}$: put the sum of these $= s$, and since $p + q + r = f$; therefore $s : f :: \frac{A \times SA^2}{SP} : \frac{f \times A \times SA^2}{s \times SP} = p$; and $\frac{SP}{SA}p = \frac{f \times A \times SA}{s} =$ force acting at A . Then $f : m :: \frac{f \times A \times SA}{s} : \frac{m \times A \times SA}{s} =$ motion of A . After the same manner $\frac{m \times B \times SB}{s}, \frac{m \times C \times SC}{s}$ are the motions of B and C ; therefore the whole motion generated in the system is $\frac{A \times SA + B \times SB + C \times SC}{s} \times m.$

FIG. 78. Cor. 1. If you make $SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{A \times SA + B \times SB + C \times SC}$; then if all the bodies be placed in O, the motion generated in the system, will be the same as before, as to the quantity of motion, or the sum of all the absolute motions; but the angular velocity will be different.

For the motion generated in these two cases, will be $\frac{A \times SA + B \times SB + C \times SC}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2} \times SP \times m$, and $\frac{A + B + C \times SO}{A + B + C \times SO^2} \times SP \times m$; and if these be supposed to be equal, there comes out $SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{A \times SA + B \times SB + C \times SC}$.

Cor. 2. The angular velocity of any system A, B, C, generated in a given time, by any force f, acting at P, perpendicular to PS, is as $\frac{SP \times f}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$.

For the angular velocity of the whole system is the same as of one of the bodies A; but the absolute motion of A is $= \frac{m \times A \times SA}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$, and the absolute velocity of A $= \frac{m \times SA}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$; but the angular velocity is as the absolute velocity directly, and the radius or distance reciprocally; therefore the angular velocity of A, and consequently of the whole system, is as $\frac{m}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$ or $\frac{m \times SP}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$ that is (because m is as the force f), as $\frac{f \times SP}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$.

Cor. 3. Hence there will be the same angular velocity generated in the system, and with the same force, as there would be in a single body placed at P, and whose quantity of matter is $\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SP^2}$.

For let P = that body, then (by Cor. 2.) since f and SP are given, the angular velocities of the system and body P will be to one another as $\frac{1}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$ to $\frac{1}{P \times SP^2}$. Which being supposed equal, we shall have $P = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SP^2}$.

Cor. 4. The angular motion of any system, generated by a uniform force, will be a motion uniformly accelerated.

P R O P.

PROP. LVII.

To find the centre of percussion of a system of bodies, or the point, FIG. which striking an immoveable object, the system shall incline to 79. neither side, but rest as it were in equilibrio.

Through the centre of gravity G of the system, draw a plane, perpendicular to the axis of motion in S , and if the bodies are not all situated in that plane, draw lines perpendicular to it from the bodies, and let A, B, C , be the places of these bodies in the plane. Draw SGO , and let O be the centre of percussion, draw Af, Bg, Ch , perpendicular to SO , and Aad to SA , and make $ad = SA$, and draw ea perpendicular, and de parallel to SO , then aA will be the direction of A 's motion, as it revolves about S , and the system being stopt at O , the body A will urge the point a forward, with a force proportional to its matter and velocity; that is, as $A \times SA$ or $A \times ad$; and the force wherewith A acts at a in direction ea , is $A \times ea$ or $A \times Sf$; and the force of A to turn the system about O , is $A \times Sf \times aO$ (by Cor. 3. Prop. XIX.) $= A \times Sf \times SO - Sa = A \times Sf \times SO - A \times SA^2$: likewise the forces of B and C to turn the system about O , is as $B \times Sg \times SO - B \times SB^2$ and $C \times Sh \times SO - C \times SC^2$; and since the forces on the contrary sides of O destroy one another, therefore $A \times Sf \times SO - A \times SA^2 + B \times Sg \times SO - B \times SB^2 + C \times Sh \times SO - C \times SC^2 = 0$; therefore $SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{A \times Sf + B \times Sg + C \times Sh}$ the distance of the centre of percussion, from the axis of motion. Where note, if any points f, g, h , fall on the contrary side of S , the correspondent rectangles must be negative, $-A \times Sf$, $-B \times Sg$, &c.

Cor. 1. If G be the centre of gravity of a system of bodies A, B, C , the distance of the centre of percussion from the axis of motion, that is, $SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SG \times A + B + C}$ &c.

For (by Prop. XLIV.) $A \times Sf + B \times Sg + C \times Sh = A + B + C \times SG$.

Cor. 2. The distance of the centre of percussion from the centre of gravity G , is $GO = \frac{GA^2 \times A + GB^2 \times B + GC^2 \times C}{SG \times A + B + C}$.

For $A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2 = A \times SG^2 + GA^2 - 2SG \times Gf + B \times SG^2 + GB^2 + 2SG \times Gg + C \times SG^2 + GC^2 + 2SG \times Gh$, by Eucl. II.

FIG. Eucl. II. 12 and 13. But (by Cor. 2. Prop. XLIV.)

$$79. -A \times Gf + B \times Gg + C \times Gh = 0, \text{ therefore } A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2 = A + B + C \times SG^2 + A \times GA^2 + B \times GB^2 + C \times GC^2.$$

$$\text{Whence, (by Cor. 1.) } SO \text{ or } SG + GO = \frac{SG^2 \times A + B + C}{SG \times A + B + C} + \frac{A \times GA^2 + B \times GB^2 + C \times GC^2}{SG \times A + B + C}.$$

$$\text{Cor. 3. Hence } SG \times GO = \text{the given quantity } \frac{A \times GA^2 + B \times GB^2 + C \times GC^2}{A + B + C}; \text{ and therefore } GO \text{ is reciprocally as } SG.$$

For each of the bodies A, B, C , and their distances from G , are given.

Cor. 4. Hence also, if SG be given, GO will be given also, and therefore if the plane of the motion remain the same, in respect to the bodies, and the distance SG remains the same, the distance of O from G will remain the same also.

Cor. 5. The percussion or quantity of the stroke at O , by the motion of the system is the same as it would be at G , supposing all the bodies placed in G , and the angular velocity the same; for the sum of the motions of A, B, C , in the system, acting against O , is as $A \times SA \times \frac{SA}{SO} + B \times SB \times \frac{SB}{SO} + C \times SC \times \frac{SC}{SO} = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SO} = SG \times A + B + C$ (by this Prop.) but $SG \times A + B + C$, denotes the motion of $A + B + C$, acting against G , or an obstacle placed there.

Cor. 6. In a body or system of bodies, oscillating about a centre S , if V be the velocity of O , the centre of percussion, the shock or quantity of the stroke at any point P , against an obstacle there, is $\frac{SG}{SP} \times V \times \text{sum of the bodies, or of the whole system}$, and therefore is reciprocally as SP ; for the velocity of A being denoted by SA , its quantity of motion is $A \times SA$, but by the property of the lever ASP its quantity of motion against P is $A \times SA \times \frac{SA}{SP}$, or $\frac{A \times SA^2}{SP}$. In like manner the motions of B, C against P are $\frac{B \times SB^2}{SP}, \frac{C \times SC^2}{SP}$, therefore the sum of all, or the whole shock against P , is $\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SP}$, and that is reciprocally as SP , all the rest being given quantities. But by this Prop. $\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SP} = \frac{SG}{SP} \times SO \times A + B + C$, where SO denotes the velocity of O the same as V .

Cor. 7. If OT be drawn perpendicular to SO , then OT will be the locus of all the centres of percussion.

For

For the direction of O is in the line OT , and therefore it is FIG. the same thing which point of the line OT strikes an obstacle.

PROP. LVIII.

To find the centre of oscillation of a system of bodies, or such a point, in which a body being placed, will vibrate in the same time, and with the same angular velocity as the whole body.

Let the axis of motion be at S , perpendicular to which draw the plane in which the centre of gravity G moves, draw SGO , and let O be the centre of oscillation, draw the horizontal line Sr , and from the bodies A, B, C , draw Aa, Bb, Cc , perpendicular to SO , and also Ae, Bn, Cd, Gg, Or , perpendicular to Sr . 81.

Put $s = A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2$, then (by Cor. 2. Prop. LVI.) the angular velocity which A, B, C , generates in the system by their weight, is $\frac{-Se \times A}{s}, \frac{Sn \times B}{s}, \frac{Sd \times C}{s}$, and the whole angular velocity generated by them all is $\frac{-Se \times A + Sn \times B + Sd \times C}{s}$.

Likewise the angular velocity which any particle p , situated in O , generates in the system, by its weight, is $\frac{Sr \times p}{p \times SO^2}$ or $\frac{Sr}{SO^2}$ or $\frac{Sg}{SG \times SO}$, because of the similar triangles SgG, SrO , but their vibrations, and every part of them, are performed alike, therefore their angular velocities must be every where equal, that is $\frac{-Se \times A + Sn \times B + Sd \times C}{s}$

$= \frac{Sg}{SG \times SO}$, whence by reduction $SO = \frac{Sg}{SG} \times \frac{s}{-Se \times A + Sn \times B + Sd \times C}$

But (by Prop. XLIV.) $-Se \times A + Sn \times B + Sd \times C = Sg \times A + B + C$, therefore the distance of the centre of oscillation from the axis of motion, $SO = \frac{s}{SG \times A + B + C} =$

$$\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2 \text{ &c.}}{SG \times A + B + C \text{ &c.}} = \frac{A \times Sa + B \times Sb + C \times Sc \text{ &c.}}{A \times Sa + B \times Sb + C \times Sc \text{ &c.}}$$

Where $A \times Sa, B \times Sb, \text{ &c.}$ must be negative, when, $a, b, \text{ &c.}$ lie on the contrary side of S ; and since all these quantities are the same at all elevations of the axis SO , therefore the point O is rightly found, and the system has such a point as is required; likewise it appears by Cor. 1. of the last Prop. that the centre of oscillation is the same with the centre of percussion.

Cor.

FIG. 81. Cor. 1. If p be any particle of a body, d its distance from S , the axis of motion, G , O , the centres of gravity and oscillation, then the distance of the centre of oscillation of the body, from the axis of motion, $SO = \frac{\text{sum of all the } p \times dd}{SG \times \text{body}}$.

Cor. 2. If the bodies A , B , C , be large, and therefore the centre of oscillation of each, not in the centre of gravity. Let d , e , f , be the respective distances of their centres of gravity, and p , q , r , of their centres of oscillation, from S , then will the distance of the centre of oscillation from S , the axis of motion, $SO = \frac{dpA + eqB + frC}{A \times Sa + B \times Sb + C \times Sc} = \frac{dpA + eqB + frC}{SG \times A + B + C}$.

For let a , b , c , be any particles in A , B , C , and x , y , z , their distances from S respectively, then by this Prop. $SO = \frac{\text{sum } x^2a + \text{sum } yyb + \text{sum } zzc}{SG \times A + B + C}$; but $\frac{\text{sum } xxa}{dA} = p$, or $\text{sum } xxa = dpA$, and $\text{sum } yyb = eqB$, and $\text{sum } zzc = frC$, and $SG \times A + B + C = Sa \times A + Sb \times B + Sc \times C$.

Cor. 3. To find the centre of oscillation of an irregular body, suspend it at the given point, and hang up a simple pendulum of such a length, that making them both vibrate, they may keep time together. Then the length of this pendulum is equal to the distance of the centre of suspension from the centre of oscillation of the body.

Cor. 4. What has been demonstrated in the last Prop. and Cor. 1, 2, 3, 4, for the centre of percussion, holds equally true for the centre of oscillation.

SCHOL.

I shall just take notice, that if the distance of the axis of suspension from the centre of gravity SG , be made equal to $\sqrt{\frac{GA^2 \times A + GB^2 \times B + GC^2 \times C}{A + B + C}}$, the body will oscillate in the least time possible.

In very small bodies, or any bodies oscillating at a great distance from the axis of motion, the centre of oscillation or percussion is in or very near the centre of gravity; and the reason why the centre of oscillation or percussion is not always in the centre of gravity, is because the body in vibrating is made

made to turn about a centre; but if it be so contrived as always to move parallel to itself, without any circular motion, the centres of gravity, of oscillation, and percussion will be the same. 81.

The distance of the centres of oscillation and percussion, from the axis of motion, as calculated by Cor. 1. is as follows, where the axis of motion is at the vertex, and in the plane of the figure:

1. In a right line, small parallelogram, and cylinder, $\frac{1}{2}$ the axis of the figure.
2. In a triangle, $\frac{1}{4}$ the axis.
3. In a plane of a circle, $\frac{1}{4}$ the radius, or $\frac{1}{8}$ the axis.
4. In the parabola, $\frac{1}{7}$ the axis.
5. Pyramid and cone, $\frac{1}{5}$ axis, nearly.
6. In a sphere r = radius, d = distance of the axis of motion from its centre; then the distance of the centre of oscillation from the axis of motion, is $d + \frac{2rr}{5d}$.

PROP. LIX.

To find the centre of gyration of a system of bodies, or such a point *O*, as that a given force, acting at a certain place, will in the same time generate the same angular velocity in the system, about an axis *SR*, as if the whole system was placed in *O*. 82.

Draw the plane *PQS* perpendicular to the axis of rotation *SR*, and let *SA*, *SB*, *SC* be the nearest distances of the bodies *A*, *B*, *C* from the axis *SR*, and let the force *f* act at *P*, in direction *PQ* perpendicular to *PS*; then (by Cor. 2. Prop. LVI.) the angular velocity generated in the system by the force *f*, will be

as $\frac{SP \times f}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$, and in the system placed in *O*, it will be $\frac{SP \times f}{A + B + C \times SO^2}$, and if these velocities be made equal,

we shall have $SO^2 = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{A + B + C}$. Whence the distance of the centre of gyration *O* from the axis of motion at *S*, that is $SO = \sqrt{\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{A + B + C}}$.

FIG. Cor. 1. Let b = quantity of matter in any body $ABRCS$, p any particle, $d = ap$, its distance from the axis of rotation SR , then the square of the distance of the centre of gyration, from the axis of motion, that is $SO^2 = \frac{\text{sum of all the } ddp}{b}$.

82. Cor. 2. If any part of the system be supposed to be placed in the centre of gyration of that particular part, the centre of gyration of the whole system will continue the same as before.

For by this Prop. the same degree of force which moved this part of the system before, along with the rest, will move it now without any alteration, and therefore if each part of the system be collected into its proper centre of gyration, the centre of gyration of the whole will continue the same.

Cor. 3. If a circle be described from G , the centre of gravity of the system, and the axis of rotation be made to pass through any point S in its periphery, the distance of the centre of gyration from that point will always be the same.

For (by Cor. 6. Prop. XLIV.) the quantity $A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2$ will be given.

Cor. 4. The distance of the centre of gyration from the axis of motion, is a mean proportional between the distances of the centres of gravity and percussion, from that axis.

It follows from this and the last Prop.

Cor. 5. The momentum or quantity of motion of the whole system, acting against an obstacle at O the centre of gyration, is the same as if all the bodies were placed in O , the angular velocity remaining the same. For the momenta or quantities of motion are as the forces.

SCHOL.

It is the same thing on whatever side of the axis of rotation SR , the point O or centre of gyration be taken, provided it be at its proper distance.

By a computation from Cor. 1. the distance of the centre of gyration from the axis of rotation, in the following bodies will be,

1. In a right line or small cylinder (revolving about the end)
 $SO = \text{length} \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$.
2. The plane of a circle, or cylinder (revolving about the axis)
 $SO = \text{radius} \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$.

3. The

3. The *periphery* of a *circle* (about the diameter) $SO = \text{radius} \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$. 82.
4. The *plane* of a *circle*, (about the diameter) $SO = \frac{1}{2} \text{radius}$.
5. The *surface* of a *sphere* (about the diameter) $SO = \text{radius} \times \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}$.
6. A *globe* (revolving about the diameter) $SO = \text{radius} \times \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}$.
7. In a *cone* (about the axis) $SO = \text{radius} \times \sqrt{\frac{3}{10}}$.

If the periphery of a circle revolve about an axis in the centre, perpendicular to its plane; it is the same thing as if all the matter was collected into any one point in that periphery, and the plane of a circle of double the matter of this periphery, and the same diameter, will in an equal time acquire the same angular velocity.

If the matter of any gyrating body were actually to be placed in its centre of gyration, it ought either to be disposed of in the circumference of a circle, whose radius is SO , or else into two points O , diametrically opposite, equal and equi-distant from S , for by this means the centre of motion S , will be in the centre of gravity, and the body will revolve without any lateral force towards any side.

P R O P. LX.

If EF be any body at rest in free space, G its centre of gravity, the points S, O , one the centre of suspension, the other of percussion; and if a moving body B strike directly against the point O , the motion generated in the body EF by the stroke shall be such, that in the time that the body makes one revolution about its centre of gravity G , the centre of gravity will move forward a space, equal to the circumference of a circle, whose radius is SG . 84.

Let the body vibrate about the point S , and in a very small time, from the position SGO , come into the position Sgd ; now the arches Gg, Od , will be as the velocities of the points G, O , vibrating about S , therefore when it comes into the position SGO , if it were disengaged from the point S , the centre of gravity G would still move forward with the same velocity Gg , and the body, instead of revolving about S , would (by Cor. 1. Prop. XLIX.) revolve about G with the same angular motion as before; therefore if rGo be drawn parallel to Sgd , Gg will represent the velocity of G , and Oo the velocity of O about G ; and because Oo, Gg are very small similar arches, therefore their circumferences will be described in equal times, that is,

FIG. 84. in the time that O , or the body itself, makes one revolution about G , the point G will advance forward a space, equal to the circumference of a circle, whose radius is SG .

Now this is the motion acquired by revolving about S ; but (by Prop. LVII.) if a body so revolving, strikes an immoveable object at O , both the progressive and circular motion will be destroyed, and the body will be at rest. It is evident on the contrary, that if a moving body strike the body at rest in the point O , with the same force, the same motion will be restored again, and is the same as above described.

Cor. 1. At the beginning of the motion, and also after every revolution of the body, when the line SGO comes into its original position, so as to be perpendicular to the line of direction OB , the point S will be at rest for a moment.

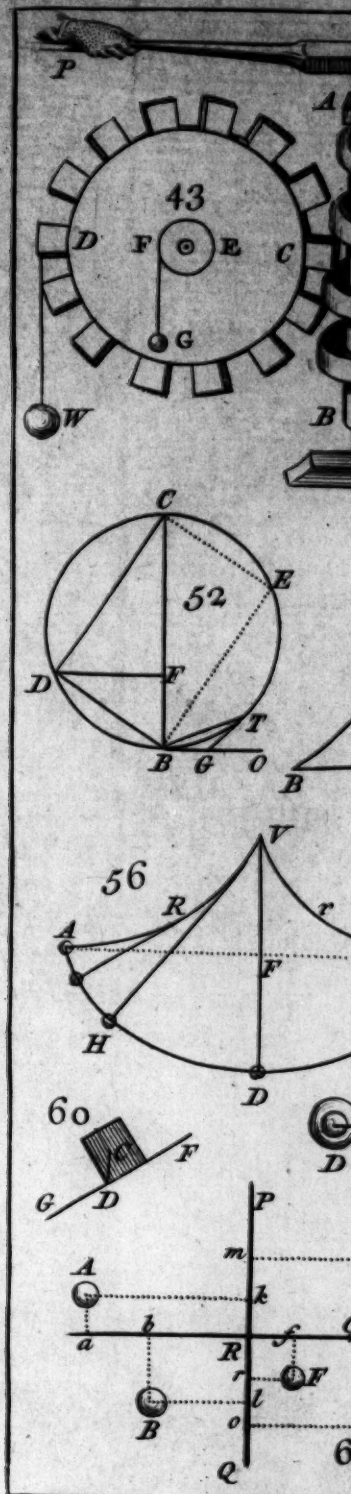
For in this position, it will be (by this Prop.) as velocity of O about G : velocity of G : : OG : GS ; and by composition, vel. O about G + vel. G that is absolute vel. O : absolute vel. G : : $OG + GS$ or OS : GS ; therefore since the absolute velocities of O and G are directly as their distances from S , it follows that the point S is at rest.

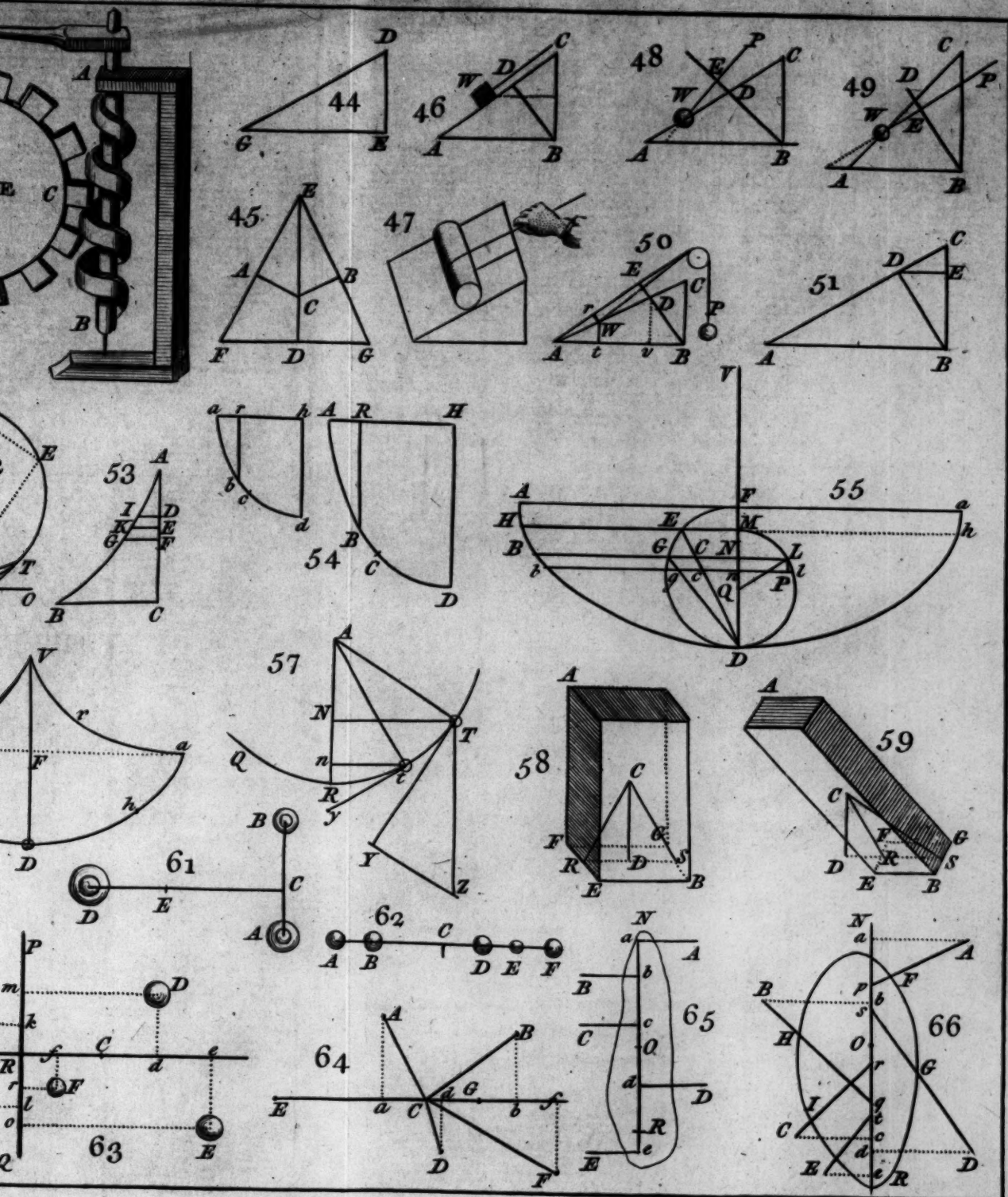
Cor. 2. Let a body $A = \frac{SG}{SO} \times \text{body } EF$, and if V be the velocity which the body A would receive by the direct stroke of B , then I say the absolute velocity of the body EF (or of its centre of gravity G), which it receives by B impinging at O , will be $\frac{SG}{SO}V$.

For let p be any particle of the body EF , and Sp its distance from S , then (by Cor. 3. Prop. LVI.) if a body $= \frac{\text{sum of all } Sp^2 \times p}{SO^2}$ be placed in O , it will receive the same angular velocity, by the stroke, about S at rest, as the body EF when struck in O , but (by Cor. 1. Prop. LVIII.) the sum of all the $Sp^2 \times p = SO \times SG \times \text{body } EF$; whence the body $\frac{SO \times SG \times \text{body } EF}{SO^2}$ or A , placed in O , receives the same angular velocity about S , as the point O of the body EF ; but vel. of O or A : vel. G : : SO : SG , for at the beginning of the motion, S is at rest, by Cor. 1.

Cor. 3. The velocity lost in B by the stroke, will be $\frac{\text{body } EF}{\text{body } B} \times \frac{SG}{SO}V$.

For





Sect. VI. CENTRE OF OSCILLATION, &c. 85

For the sum of the motions of all the bodies, after the stroke, FIG.
is the same as the motion of *B* before it, by Prop. X. 84.

SCHOL.

The point *S* is by some called the *spontaneous centre of rotation*, because the body (or system of bodies) at the beginning of the motion, moves as it were of its own accord, or without any compulsion, about the centre *S* at rest.

PROP. LXI.

Let *DE* be any body, *C* its centre of gravity, and if from the centre 85.
C, the circle *BFS* be described, and if about *BFS* as an axis, a cord *ASBFS*, be wound, and the end fixt at *A*; and if *O* be the centre of oscillation, in respect to the centre of suspension *S*, then if the body descend by a rotation round the axis *BFS*, by unwinding the cord *ASBF*, &c. then I say the space descended by the whirling body *DE*, is to the space descended in the same time, by a body falling freely, as *SC* to *SO*.

Through the point of contact *S* and the centre of gravity *C*, draw the horizontal line *SCO*, then (by Prop. LVIII.) the angular velocity of the body about the point of suspension *S*, at the beginning of the motion, will be the same as if the whole body was placed in *O*; but if a body was placed in *O*, its velocity generated at the beginning will be the same as of a body falling freely; therefore drawing *ScO* infinitely near *SCO*, and the small arches *Oo*, *Cc*; then the velocity of *O*, is to the velocity of the centre of gravity *C*, as *Oo* to *Cc*, or as *SO* to *SC*, that is, the velocity generated by a body falling freely, is to the velocity of the descending body *DE*, as *SO* to *SC*. Now since the points *S* and *O* are always in the horizontal line *SCO*, and the radius *SC* is given, and likewise (by Cor. 4. Prop. LVII.) the distance *CO*; therefore the velocities of *O* and *C* in any times will always be as *SO* to *SC*, that is, the velocity of a body descending freely, is to the velocity of the whirling body *DE*, always in the ratio of *SO* to *SC*, and therefore (by Prop. VI.) the spaces described are in the same ratio.

Cor. 1. The weight of the body *DE*, is to the tension of the cord *AS*, as *SO* to *CO*.

For

FIG. For let the body be supported at O , then since C is the centre of gravity, therefore (by Cor. Prop. L. and Cor. 5. Prop. XIX.) the weight DE is to the pressure at S , as SO to CO ; now if the point O be let go, the force acting at O will generate a motion about S , whilst the pressure at S , and consequently the tension of the cord, is neither increased nor decreased, but remains the same as before.

Cor. 2. If a circular body as BFS runs down an inclined plane, whilst the thread ASB unfolds, or if a round body roll down an inclined plane, and by its friction be hindered from sliding, the space it describes in any time, is to the space described by a body sliding down freely without friction, as SC to SO .

For the forces that generate their motions are both decreased in the same ratio, that is, as the absolute gravity to the relative gravity upon the plane, therefore the spaces described will remain in the same ratio of SC to SO , and in the rolling body the friction supplies the place of the cord, the same as if it had teeth.

Cor. 3. This motion of the body DE by rotation, is a motion uniformly accelerated, and the tension of the cord is always the same, through the whole descent.

SCHOL.

86. Let W = weight of a body, S = space described by a body falling freely, then the spaces described by rotation or whirling, in the following bodies, as SBF , in the same time, are,

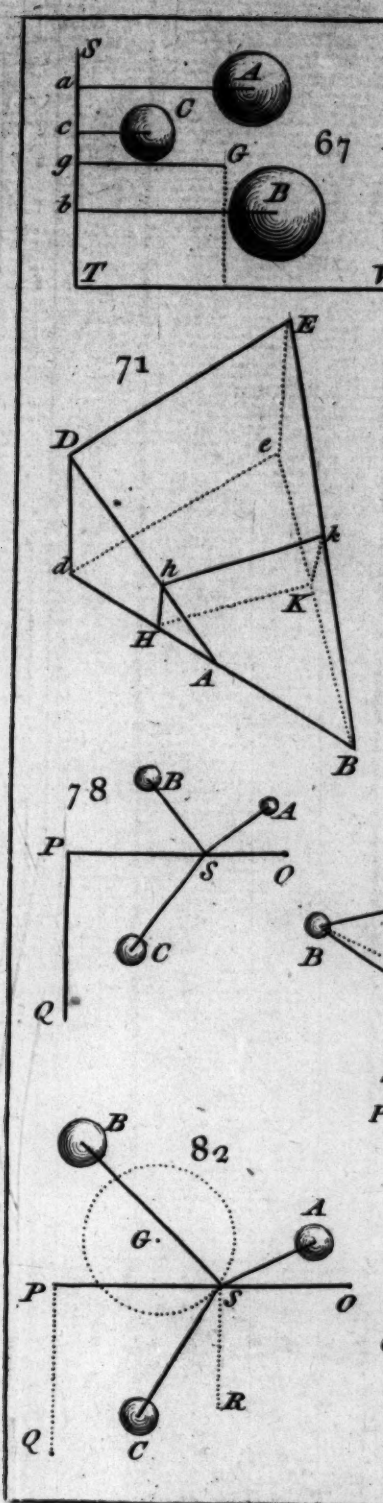
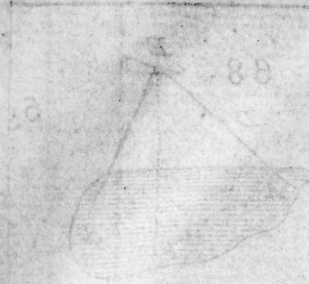
1. In the circumference of a circle, SBF , or surface of a cylinder, space = $\frac{1}{2}S$; tension of the string = $\frac{1}{2}W$.

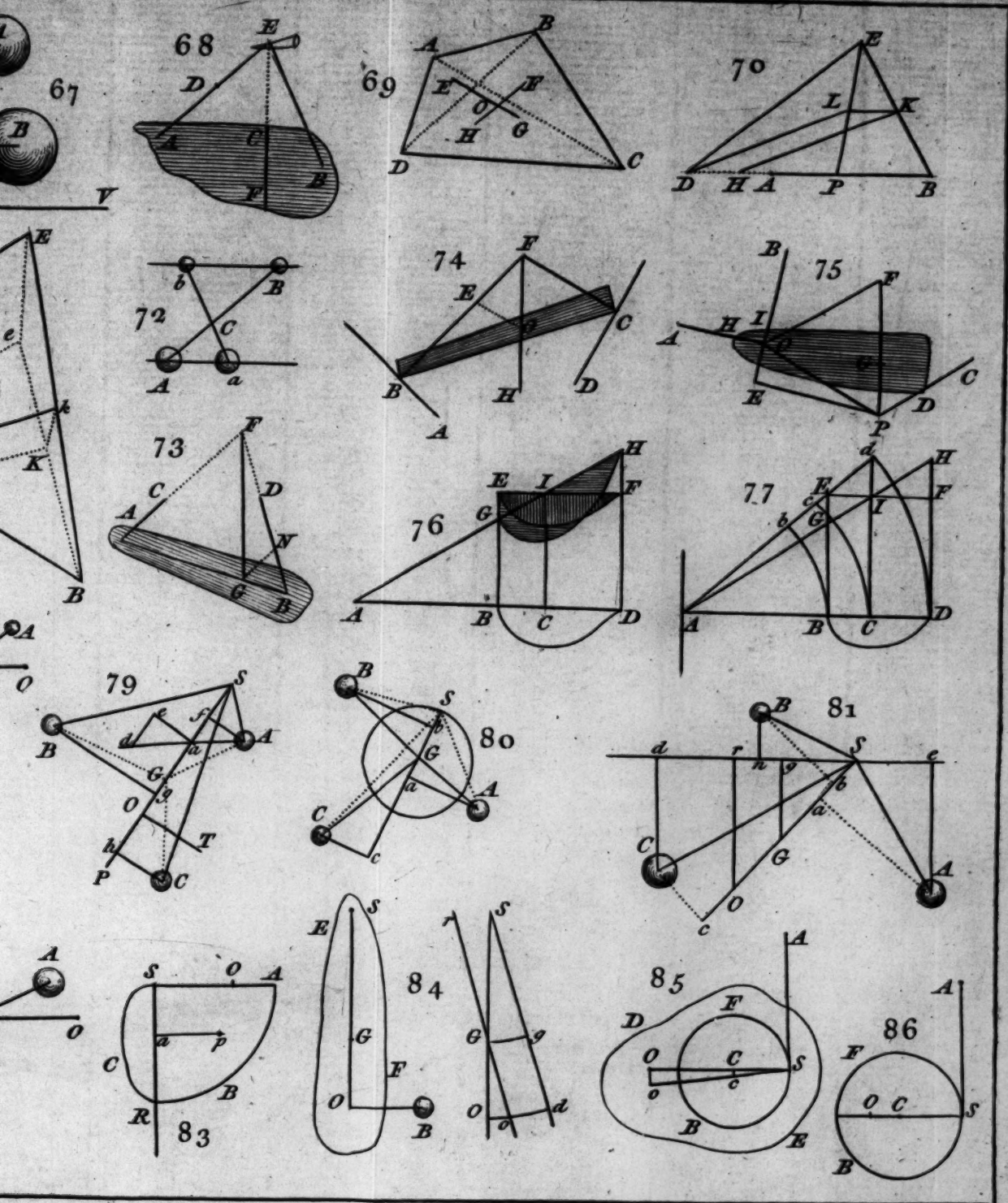
2. In the circumference of a circle, SBF , without weight, and the weight be in the centre C ; space = S , tension of the string = 0.

3. In the plane of a circle SBF , or a cylinder; space = $\frac{3}{4}S$, and the tension of the string AS = $\frac{3}{4}W$.

4. In the surface of a sphere SBF ; space = $\frac{3}{5}S$, and the tension of the string AS = $\frac{3}{5}W$.

5. In a sphere SBF , space = $\frac{8}{7}S$, and tension of the thread = $\frac{8}{7}W$.





S E C T. VII.

The quantity and direction of the pressure of beams of timber, by any weights, and the forces necessary to sustain them.

P R O P. LXII.

If a beam of timber be supported at C and B, lying upon the wall F I G. ACE, with one end, and if G be the centre of gravity of the whole weight sustained, and the line FGH be drawn perpendicular to the horizon, and CF and BH to CB, and BF drawn, I say,

<i>The weight of the whole body</i>	} <i>and in these several directions.</i>
<i>Pressure at the top C</i>	
<i>Thrust or pressure at the base B</i>	
<i>are respectively as</i>	

If the beam support any weight, the beam and weight must be considered as one body; whose centre of gravity is G, then the end C is supported by the plane BCE, and (by Cor. 3. Prop. LIII.) the other end B may be supposed to be sustained by a plane perpendicular to BF, therefore (by Cor. 1. Prop. LIII.) the weight and forces at C and B are respectively as FH, BH, and BF.

Cor. 1. Produce FB towards Q, then BQ is the direction of the pressure at B; and the pressures at B in directions BQ, FD, DB, are as FB, FD, DB.

Cor. 2. Draw Dr perpendicular to BC, and draw CD; then the weight, pressure at the top, direct pressure at bottom, and horizontal pressure at bottom, are respectively as CB, BD, DC, and Dr.

For

FIG. For since the angles BCF , BDF are right, a circle described
 87. upon the diameter BF , will pass through C , D ; therefore $\angle BCD = BFD$ standing on the same arch BD , and because the $\angle GBH$ and $\angle$ s at D are right, $BHF = CBD$, therefore the triangles FHB and CBD are similar, and the figure $BHDF$ similar to the figure, $DBrC$, whence $FH : BH : BF : BD ::$ are as $CB : BD : DC$ and Dr .

Cor. 3. All this holds true for any force instead of gravity, acting in direction GD .

P R O P. LXIII.

88. If BC be any beam, bearing any weight, G the centre of gravity of the whole, and if it lean against the perpendicular wall CA and be supported in that position, draw BA , CF parallel, and FGD perpendicular to the horizon, and draw FB , then

The whole weight	} FD	and in the same directions.	
Pressure at the top C			} BD
Thrust or pressure at the bottom B			
are respectively as			

For the end C is sustained by the plane AC , and if the end B be supposed to be sustained by a plane perpendicular to FB , then (by Cor. 1. Prop. LIII.) the weight, and pressure at top and bottom, are as DF , DB , FB . If you suppose the end B is not sustained by a plane perpendicular to FB , the body will not be supported at all, by Cor. 2. Prop. LIII.

Cor. If FB be produced to Q , then BQ is the direction of the pressure at B , and the perpendicular pressure at B (FD) is equal to the weight, and the horizontal pressure at B (BD), is equal to the pressure against C .

P R O P. LXIV.

89. If a heavy beam or one bearing a weight, be sustained at C , and moveable about a point C ; whilst the other end B lies upon the wall BE . And if HGF be drawn through the centre of gravity G ,
 per-

perpendicular to the horizon, and BF , CH perpendicular to BC , FIG. 89.
and CF be drawn; then

The whole weight	}	HF	} and in these directions.
Pressure at B		HC	
Force acting at C ,		CF ,	
are respectively			

For the end B is sustained by the plane CB , and (by Cor. 2. Prop. LIII.) the end C may be supposed to be sustained by a plane perpendicular to FC ; or by a cord in direction CF , then since HC is parallel to BF , the weight, force at C , pressure at B , are respectively as HF , CF , HC , by Cor. 1. Prop. LII. or Cor. 1. Prop. LIII.

Cor. But if instead of lying upon the inclined plane at B , the end B laid upon the horizontal plane AB , then the weight, the pressure at B and C , are respectively as BC , GC , and BG , and in this case there is no lateral pressure.

For BF will be perpendicular to BA , and parallel to HF , and consequently CF is also parallel to HF , therefore (by Cor. 5. Prop. XIX.) the forces at C , G , B are as BG , CB , and CG .

P R O P. LXV.

If a heavy beam BC , whose centre of gravity is G , be supported upon 90.
two posts BA , CD , and be moveable about the points, A , B , C , D ; and if AB , DC produced, meet in any point H , of the line GF , drawn perpendicular to the horizon; and if from any point F , in the line GF , FE be drawn parallel to AB , I say

The whole weight	}	HF	} and in these directions.
Pressure at C		HE	
Thrust or pressure at B ,		EF ,	
are respectively as			

For the points A , B , C , D being in a plane perpendicular to the horizon, the body may be supposed to be supported by two planes at B , C , perpendicular to AB , DC , or by two ropes BH , CH ; and in either case, the weight in direction HG , the pressure at B , C , in directions HB , HC , are as HF , EF and HE .

FIG. Cor. Hence, whether a body be sustained by two ropes, BH, CH, 90. or by two posts AB, CD, or by two planes perp. to BA, CD, the body then can only be at rest, when the plumb-line HGF passes through G, the centre of gravity of the whole weight sustained; or which is the same thing, when AB, DC intersect in the plumb-line HGF, passing through the centre of gravity.

S C H O L.

By the construction of these four last propositions, there is formed the *triangle of pressure*, representing the several forces: in which, the *line of gravity* (or plumb-line passing through the centre of gravity) always represents the absolute weight; and the other sides the corresponding pressures.

P R O P. LXVI.

91. If several beams AB, BC, CD, &c. joined together at B, C, D, &c. and moveable about the points A, B, C, &c. be placed in a vertical plane, the points A, F, being fixt, and through, B, C, D drawing ri, sm, tp perp. to the horizon; and if several weights be laid on the angles B, C, D, &c. so that the weight on any angle C may be as $\frac{S.BCD}{S.mCB \times S.mCD}$, then all the beams will be kept in equilibrio by these weights.

Produce DC to r. Then (by Cor. 2. Prop. VIII.) $S. \angle ABC : S. \angle ABr :: \text{weight } B : \text{force in direction } CB = \frac{B \times S.ABr}{S.ABC}$; and $S.BCD : S.DCs :: \text{weight } C : \text{force in direction } CB = \frac{C \times S.DCs}{S.BCD}$; which, to preserve the equilibrium, must be equal to the force in direction BC, that is $\frac{B \times S.ABr}{S.ABC} = \frac{C \times S.DCs}{S.BCD}$; whence $B : C :: \frac{S.ABC}{S.ABr} : \frac{S.BCD}{S.DCs}$; and by the same way of reasoning, $C : D :: \frac{S.BCD}{S.BCs} : \frac{S.CDE}{S.EDi}$; therefore ex æquo, weight B : weight D :: $\frac{S.ABC}{S.ABr \times S.BCs} : \frac{S.CDE}{S.DCs \times S.EDi} :: \frac{S.ABC}{S.ABi \times S.CBi} : \frac{S.CDE}{S.CDi \times S.EDp}$.

Cor.

Cor. 1. Produce CD, so that Dm may be equal to Cr, and draw *FIG.* *wx* parallel to Dp, cutting DE in *x*, then the weight C, the forces 91. in directions CB, and CD, are as *rB*, CB and Cr respectively; and weight C is to the weight D, as Br to wx.

Cor. 2. The force or thrust at C in direction CB, or at B in direction BC, is as the secant of the elevation of the line BC above the horizon.

For, force in direction CB : force in direction CD :: CB : Cr :: S. CrB or rCm or sCD : S. rBC :: cof. elevation of CD : cof. elevation of CB :: sec. elevation of CB : sec. elevation CD, because the secants are reciprocally as the cosines.

Cor. 3. Draw Cp, Dm parallel to DE, CB, then the weights on C and D, to preserve the equilibrium, will be as Cm to Dp; and therefore if all the weights are given, and the position of two lines CD, DE, then the positions of all the rest CB, BA, &c. will be successively found.

For let the force in direction CD or DC be CD, then Cp is the force in direction DE, and Dm, in direction CB; and Dp or the weight D, is the force compounded of DC, Cp; and Cm or the weight C is the force compounded of CD, Dm, by Cor. 2. Prop. VII.

Cor. 4. If the weights lie not on the angles B, C, D, &c. let the places of their centres of gravity be at g, h, k, l, and let g, b, k, l, also express their weights; and take the weight B = $\frac{Ag}{AB} \times \frac{bC}{BC}$, C = $\frac{Bh}{BC} + \frac{kD}{CD}$, D = $\frac{Ck}{CD} + \frac{lE}{DE}$, &c. then B, C, D, &c. will be the weights lying upon the respective angles.

This is evident by Cor. 5. Prop. XIX.

Cor. 5. If the weights were to act upwards, in the directions mC, pD, &c. or which is the same thing, if the figure A, B, C, D, E, F was turned upside down, and the weights remain the same, and the points A, F be fixt, as before, all the angles at B, C, D, &c. and consequently the whole figure, will remain the same as before, and that whether the lines AB, BC, CD, &c. be flexible or inflexible, cords or timbers.

This will easily appear by the demonstration of the Prop. for the ratio of the forces at any angle C, will be the same, whether they act towards the point C, or from it, by Prop. VIII. that is, it will be the same thing whether the weight at any

FIG. angle C , acts in direction Cm or Cs ; and as the forces were
 91. supposed before to thrust against C , the same forces now do
 pull from it.

S C H O L.

92. If $DABF$ be a semi-circle, whose diameter is DF , draw
 AG perpendicular to DF ; then the force or weight at any
 place A , to preserve the equilibrium, will be reciprocally as
 AG^3 , or directly as the cube of the secant of the arch BA .

Likewise it follows from Cor. 5. that if any cords of equal
 lengths be stretched to the same degree of curvature, the stretch-
 ing forces will be as the weights of the cords.

S E C T. VIII.

*The strength of beams of timber in all positions;
and their stress by any weights acting upon
them, or by any forces applied to them.*

P R O P. LXVII.

*The lateral strength of any piece of timber, in any place, whose
section is a rectangle, is directly as the breadth and square of the
depth.*

Let BD be any beam, placed horizontally, and fixed at the end BC ; and let AFG be the perpendicular section; divide the depth AF into an infinite number of equal parts at $a, b, c, d, \&c.$ whose number is AF or n , through which suppose lines drawn parallel to FG , and let any force be applied at P in direction DP , to break the beam at AF ; then since the strength of the timber is nothing but the force by which the parts of the timber at $a, b, c, \&c.$ cohere together, the breaking the timber is nothing but overcoming this force, and separating the parts at $a, b, c.$ Suppose $1 =$ force of cohesion of any of the parts $Aa, ab, bc, \&c.$ and imagine $QAa, QAb, QAc, \&c.$ so many bended levers whose fulcrum is at A , and let us see what will be the sum of all the forces applied at Q to break the timber at A ; now (by Cor. 1. Prop. XIX.) the power applied at Q to equal or overcome the resistances at $A, a, b, c, \&c.$ will be $\frac{0}{AQ}, \frac{Aa}{AQ}, \frac{Ab}{AQ}, \frac{Ac}{AQ}, \frac{Ad}{AQ}, \&c.$ to $\frac{AF}{AQ}$; that is, as $\frac{0}{AQ}, \frac{1}{AQ}, \frac{2}{AQ}, \frac{3}{AQ}, \dots \frac{n}{AQ}$. Therefore the effect of all the forces applied to Q , or the whole strength of the beam at A , will be $\frac{0+1+2+3+\dots+n}{AQ}$ or $\frac{nn}{2AQ}$; that is, because AQ is given, as nn or AF^2 . Now if the breadth

FIG.
93.

FG

FIG. *FG* be increased in any proportion, it is evident the strength of
 93. every part *Aa*, *ab*, &c. will be increased in the same proportion, and therefore the absolute lateral strength will be as $AF^2 \times FG$.

Cor. 1. In square timber the lateral strength is as the cube of the breadth or depth.

Cor. 2. And in general, the lateral strength of any pieces of timber, whose sections are similar figures, are as the cubes of the similar sides of the sections.

Cor. 3. And in any pieces of timber, whose sections are such figures, that the correspondent ordinates, parallel to the horizon, are proportional, the strengths are as the breadths and squares of the depths, or as the sections multiplied by the depths.

289. *Cor. 4. The strength of cylindrical pieces, or of any similar pieces of timber, being forced or twisted round the axis, will also be as the cubes of the diameters.*

For let $AD = r$, circumference of the section $DEFG = c$, $Ap = x$, then the circumference $pqr = \frac{cx}{r}$, and if the cohesion of a particle at p be $= 1$, then the force applied at Q to overcome it will be $\frac{x}{AQ}$, and the force applied at Q to overcome the cohesion of all the parts, in the circumference pqr will be $\frac{x}{AQ} \times \frac{cx}{r}$, or $\frac{c}{r \times AQ} \times xx$, and the total force at Q to overcome the cohesion of all the particles in the whole section $DEFG$ is $= \frac{c}{r \times AQ} \times \text{sum of all the } xx = \frac{c}{r \times AQ} \times 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 \dots$ to $r^2 = \frac{c}{r \times AQ} \times \frac{r^3}{3}$. Therefore, because AQ is given, and the ratio $\frac{c}{r}$, and this force is the strength of the beam, therefore the strength is as r^3 or AD^3 .

SCHOL.

93. What is here said of timber, is true of any homogeneous bodies, whatever sort of matter they are composed of. But the absolute

* Ward's Math. Guide, Part V. Lem. 3.

absolute strength of any beam, lever, rope, &c. when drawn in FIG. direction of its length, will be as the section of it. For every 93. part does in this case bear an equal stretch; and the sum of all the parts is equal to the whole, and that is as the section.

P R O P. LXVIII.

The lateral strength of a tube or hollow cane AB, to that of a solid 94. one CD; is as the section of the tube (excluding the hollow), to the section of the solid cane, and the whole diameter of the tube to the diameter of the solid cane, nearly.

For by Cor. 2. of the last Prop. The strength of the solid cylinder BF is AF^3 , and the strength of the inner solid cylinder, whose fulcrum is at G, is EG^3 , and whose fulcrum is at F, is greater than EG^3 and less than EF^3 , and is nearly $\overline{EG + \frac{1}{2}GF}^3 = \overline{AF - \frac{1}{2}AE}^3$, that is $AF^3 - \frac{3}{2}AF^2 \times AE$ nearly. Therefore the strength of the tube AFGE, is the difference of the strength of these cylinders, that is, $AF^3 - AF^3 + \frac{3}{2}AF^2 \times AE$ or $\frac{3}{2}AF^2 \times AE$. Likewise the strength of the solid cylinder DCH, is CH^3 . Therefore the strength of the tube FB : strength of the cylinder HD $:: \frac{3}{2}AF^2 \times AE : CH^3$. But the section of the tube is as $AF^2 - EG^2$ or $AF^2 - \overline{AF - \frac{1}{2}AE}^2 = 4AF \times AE$ nearly. Whence, strength of the tube FB : strength of the cylinder HD $:: \frac{3}{2}AF^2 \times AE : CH \times CH^2 :: 4AF \times AE \times 1\frac{1}{2}AF : CH^2 \times CH ::$ section of the tube $\times 1\frac{1}{2}$ its diameter : section of the cylinder $\times$ its diameter $::$ section tube $\times$ diameter : section cylinder $\times$ diameter, nearly.

Otherwise.

Let the area of the ring AEGF be disposed into another ring, whose diameter is less than AF; then since every particle of it acts at a less distance from the fulcrum F, its strength will be less in proportion; that is, its strength will be as the diameter of the ring. And when the ring is so far diminished as to become an enire circle, the proportion of their strength will not differ far from the proportion of their diameters. Let the diameter of that circle be R; then, strength of the ring or tube : strength of an equal circle $:: AF : R$. And the strength of R : to that of CH $:: R^3 : CH^3$. Therefore ex æquo, strength of the tube BF : strength of the cylinder HD $:: AF \times R^3 : R \times CH^3 :: AF$

FIG.:: $AF \times R^2 : CH \times CH^2 :: AF \times \text{area ring} : CH \times \text{area of the}$
 94. circle CH .

Cor. Hence the strength of different tubes are as their sections, and diameters nearly.

P R O P. LXIX.

95. *If any force be applied laterally to a lever, or beam; the stress upon any place is directly as the force, and its distance from that place.*

For suppose PAF to be a bended lever. It is evident the greater the power at P , the greater force is applied at F to separate the parts of the wood. Also the greater the distance AP , the greater power has any given force applied at P , to overcome the cohesion of the wood at F ; and therefore the whole stress depends on both.

96. *Cor. 1. If two equal weights lie upon the middle of two beams, or upon any other similar places C ; the stress in these places will be as the lengths of the beams.*

For if C be the middle point; then A bears half the weight; therefore the stress at C is as $AC \times \frac{1}{2}$ weight. And because half the weight, or the force acting at A is given; therefore the stress is as AC or half AB , and therefore as AC . And if C be in any other similar situation in both beams, the same thing will follow.

Cor. 2. If two beams bear two weights proportional to their lengths, and in a like situation, the stress upon each will be as the square of its length.

Cor. 3. And if two beams bear two weights reciprocally as their lengths, in a similar situation, the stress where the weights lie is equal in both.

P R O P.

PROP. LXX.

Let AB be any beam of a given length, supported at A and B , FIG. and any given weight either suspended at any point C , or equally diffused through the whole length of the beam AB ; I say, in either case, the strefs of the beam in C is as the rectangle $AC \times CB$. 97.

CASE I.

Let the given weight be represented by the given length of the lever AB ; then (by Cor. 5. Prop. XIX.) the weight at A , and the re-action equal thereto, will be CB ; and by the last Prop. the strefs at C will be as the force acting at $A \times$ distance AC , that is $AC \times CB$.

CASE II.

Let AB be divided into an infinite number n of equal parts, each $= 1$; then as AB represents the whole weight, 1 will be the weight supported upon 1 part of the beam, let it rest at p ; then $\frac{Ap}{AB} =$ its pressure on B ; therefore (by the last Prop.) the strefs at p is $\frac{Ap \times pB}{AB}$, and the strefs at C is $\frac{Ap \times BC}{AB}$, arising from the weight at p ; consequently the strefs at C arising from the sum of all the weights between A and C will be $\frac{0+1+2+3 \dots AC}{AB} \times BC$, that is, (because AC is the number of them) $\frac{AC^2 \times BC}{2AB}$. And by a like reasoning, the strefs at C , arising from the whole weight between B and C , will be $\frac{CB^2 \times AC}{2AB}$; consequently the whole strefs at C is $\frac{AC^2 \times BC + CB^2 \times AC}{2AB} = \frac{AC+AB}{2AB} \times AC \times CB = \frac{AC \times CB}{2}$.

Cor. 1. The greatest strefs of a beam is in the middle, the weight being either suspended there, or equally disposed over the whole length of the beam.

O

Cor.

FIG. Cor. 2. The stress of the beam at any point p , by a weight applied to any other point C , is as $Ap \times CB$.

For $AC \times CB$ is the stress at C , and (by Prop. last) $Ap \times CB$ will be the stress at p .

Cor. 3. The stress of the beam at any point C , by a weight suspended there, is double the stress of the beam at the same point C , by the same weight pressing uniformly on all parts of the beam.

For by Case I. the stress at C is $AC \times CB$; and by Case II. the stress at C is $\frac{AC \times CB}{2}$.

Cor. 4. The stress of a beam at any point C , by a weight suspended there, is double to the stress at C , when the same weight is uniformly dispersed on all the parts of AC .

Cor. 5. If a weight press equally on all the parts of pC , the stress at C by that pressure, is to the stress at C , when suspended at C : as $Ap + AC$, to $2AC$.

For (by Cor. 2.) the stress at C , by the weight 1 lying at p , is $Ap \times CB$, and at C , is $AC \times CB$; therefore the whole stress at C , by the whole weight on all the points of pC , is the sum of all the $Ap \times CB = Ap + Ap + 1 + Ap + 2 \dots AC : \times CB = \frac{Ap + AC}{2} \times pC \times CB$. But the stress by the whole weight at C is $AC \times CB \times pC$; and the former is to the latter, as $\frac{Ap + AC}{2}$ to AC .

Cor. 6. If a weight press equally on all the parts of Ap , the stress at any point C by that weight, is to the stress at C if suspended there: as Ap to $2AC$.

For the stress at C by all the weight on Ap , is $0 + 1 + 2 \dots Ap \times CB = \frac{Ap^2}{2} \times CB$. And the stress by the weight Ap at C is $AC \times CB \times Ap$.

Cor. 7. The stress at p by a weight at C , is equal to the stress at C , by the same weight at p .

PROP.

P R O P. LXXI.

If CD be a prominent beam, fixt horizontally at the end C , as in a FIG. wall, and if a weight proportional to the length of the beam, be 98. dispersed uniformly on all the parts of the beam, the stress at any point F , will be as DF^2 , the square of the distance from the extremity.

For let FD be divided into an infinite number of equal parts at $p, q, r, s, \&c.$ and let each be $= 1$, and sustain the weight 1, then (by Prop. LXIX.) the stress at F , by the weights at $F, p, q, r, \&c.$ will be $1 \times 0, 1 \times Fp, 1 \times Fq, \&c.$ or as $0, 1, 2, 3, \&c.$ respectively, therefore the whole stress at C will be $0+1+2+3 \dots FD = \frac{FD^2}{2}$

Cor. 1. Hence the stress at F , by any weight suspended at D , will be double the stress at the same point F , when the same weight presses uniformly on all the parts between F and D .

For (by Prop. LXIX.) the stress at F by the weight DF , is $DF \times DF$ or FD^2 .

Cor. 2. The stress at the end BC , by the weight P , is the same as the stress upon the middle of a beam of twice the length DC , with twice the weight P laid on its middle, this beam being supported at both ends.

For the stress now at C , is the same as if DC was continued to the same length beyond C , and a weight equal to P suspended at the end, and then the fulcrum C will be acted on with twice the weight P ; and this is the same as if the beam was turned upside down, and twice the weight P laid on the middle C .

P R O P. LXXII.

If there be two beams standing aslope, and bearing two weights 99. upon them, either in the middle, or in any given situation, or 100. equally diffused over the whole length of the beams; the stress upon them will be directly as the weights, and the lengths, and the cosines of elevation.

FIG. For (by Cor. 1. Prop. XXXI.) the weight is to the pressure
 99. upon the plane, as radius to the cos. elevation, therefore the
 100. pressure is as cos. elevation $\times$ weight, and this is the force acting against the beam; therefore (by Prop. LXVIII.) the stress will be as its length and this force, that is, as the length, the weight, and cos. elevation.

Cor. 1. If the weights and length of the beams be the same, the stress will be as the cosine of elevation, and therefore greatest when it lies horizontal.

Cor. 2. If the beams lie horizontal, or at any equal inclinations, and the weight be as the length, then the stress is as the square of the length.

99. Cor. 3. If the weights are equal, on the horizontal beam AB , and the inclined one AC , and BC be perpendicular to AB , then the stress will be equal upon both.

For the length $\times$ cos. elevation is the same in both, or $AC \times \cos. A = AB \times \text{radius}$.

Cor. 4. But if the weights on the same beams be as their lengths, then the stress will also be as their lengths, AB and AC .

Cor. 5. And universally, the stress upon any point of a sloping beam, is as the rectangle of the segments, and the weight, and cos. inclination, directly, and the length of the beam reciprocally.

97. For in the horizontal beam AB , if the weight W lie upon C , the pressure at A will be $\frac{CB}{AB} \times W$; and (by Prop. LXIX.) this pressure or force $\times$ distance AC , will be as the stress at C , that is, $\frac{AC \times CB}{AB} \times W$ is as the stress at C , and if the beam lie aslope, the stress (by Cor. 1. Prop. XXXI.) will then vary in proportion to the cos. elevation.

PROP. LXXIII.

If any beam of timber be to support any weight, or pressure, or force, acting laterally upon it, the breadth multiplied by the square of the

the depth, or in similar sections, the cube of the diameter, in FIG. every place, ought to be proportional to the length multiplied by the weight or force acting on it, or as the stress in that place: and the same is true of several different pieces of timber compared together.

For every several piece of timber, as well as every part of the same timber or beam, ought to have its strength proportioned to the weight, force, or pressure it is to sustain, and therefore the strength ought to be universally as the stress upon it; but (by Prop. LXVII.) the strength is as the breadth $\times$ square of the depth; and (by Prop. LXIX.) the stress is as the weight or force $\times$ by the distance it acts at, and therefore these must be in an invariable ratio.

Cor. 1. If AEB be a prominent beam fixt at the end AE, and 102- sustaining a weight at the other end B, and if the sections in all places be similar figures, and CD be the diameter in any place C, then CB will be every where as CD^3 ; and if ACB be a right line, EDB will be a cubic parabola; therefore $\frac{2}{3}$ of such a beam may be cut away without any diminution of the strength.

But if the beam be bounded by two parallel planes, perpendicular to the horizon, then CB will be as CD^2 , and then EDB will be the common parabola; whence a third part of a beam may be thus cut away.

Cor. 2. But if a weight press uniformly on every part of AB, 102- and the sections in all points as C, be similar, then BC will be every where as CD^3 , and EDB a semi-cubical parabola.

But if the beam be bounded by parallel planes, perpendicular to the 101- horizon, then BC will be as CD , and EDB a right line; here half a beam may be cut away, without losing any strength.

Cor. 3. If AB be a beam supported at both ends, and if it bear 103- a weight in any variable point C, or uniformly on all the parts of it; and if all the sections be similar figures, and CD be the diameter in that place C, then will CD^3 be every where as $AC \times CB$.

But if it be bounded by two parallel planes, perpendicular to the horizon, then will CD^2 be every where as $AC \times CB$, and therefore the curve ADB is an ellipsis, supposing AB a right line.

Cor. 4. But if a weight be placed at any given point P, and all 104- sections are similar figures, and if CD be any diameter, then will BC be as CD^3 , and AQ and BQ are two cubic parabolas.

But

FIG. 104. *But if the beam be bounded by two parallel planes, perpendicular to the horizon, then BC is as CD^2 , and AQ and BQ are two common parabolas.*

Cor. 5. All circular plates, whether great or little, being of the same matter and thickness, and supported all round on the edges, will bear equal weights; the same is true of square plates, or any similar ones.

290. For let AD, ad , be two squares, and let them first be only supported at the ends AB, CD , and ab, cd , then by this Prop. (since the thickness is given) $AB : AC \times \text{weight on } AD :: ab : ac \times \text{weight on } ad$, and $\text{weight on } AD : \text{weight on } ad :: \frac{AB}{AC} : \frac{ab}{ac}$, but $\frac{AB}{AC} = \frac{ab}{ac}$, therefore $\text{weight on } AD = \text{weight on } ad$, when the plates are only supported by AB, CD , and ab, cd ; and for the same reason the weights will be equal, when only supported by the sides AC, BD , and ac, bd ; and consequently the weights will still be equal, when the plates are supported by all four sides, in which case twice the weight will be supported; and the same holds equally true of all similar figures. For,

291. Let AD, ad , be two hollow circles, draw the inscribed squares $ABCD, abcd$, these squares are supported upon the four sides AB, BD, DC, CA , and ab, bd, dc, ca , by the continuity of the plates, therefore the weights will be equal, as was proved before: and that the continuity of the plates will equally support the weights in both circles, is plain, because the strength of both segments AB, ab , are equal, the length being as the breadth.

*Cor. 6. Hence, the weight a square plate will bear :
To the weight which a bar of the same matter and thickness will bear ::
As twice the length of the bar :
To its breadth.*

And a circular plate is but very little weaker.

SCHOL.

All these things appear from the foregoing propositions, but it is here supposed that the timber is homogeneous and of the same goodness, otherwise a proper allowance must be made for the defect. And what is here said of pieces of timber, holds equally true of any other solid bodies, such as pieces of metal, stone, &c. And if pieces of timber or metal be cut into the figures

figures mentioned in the foregoing corollaries, all the parts will FIG. be disposed to break together; and if a spring is to be made, 291. its shape ought to be as in Cor. 1. and then every part will bear a stress proportional to its strength.

P R O P. LXXIV.

*If a weight A be supported upon the end of a crooked piece of timber 105.
ABD, and from the ends a line AB be drawn perpendicular to
the horizon, and from the angle B, the line BC perpendicular to
AD; the stress at B will be as the perpendicular BC.*

For as the weight *A* acts not in direction *AB*, but in direction *AD*, therefore it is the same as if it were applied at the point *C*; but a force applied at *C*, has a greater power to break the timber at *B*, in proportion as the lever *BC* is longer, this force therefore, or the stress at *B*, is as *BC*.

*Cor. 1. Hence if any two forces acting from or against one another, 106,
at the ends A, F, of any crooked beam ABDEF, and keep one another
in equilibrio, and the line AF or the direction of the forces
being drawn, the stress at any point, is as the perpendicular upon
AF; so the stress at b is bc; at B, BC; at D, DI; at E, EK;
and at G, H, nothing.*

Cor. 2. Hence also, that the strength in any part b, may be proportional to the stress there, the breadth multiplied by the square of the depth, must be as the perpendicular bc; reckoning that the depth, which is in the plane passing through AF.

P R O P. LXXV.

*Having the length AB and weight W, of a cylinder or prism, that 107.
can just support the weight P at the end, to find the length of 108.
another beam FG, similar to the former, and of the same matter,
that will just break with its own weight, or only support itself.*

Since

FIG. Since the weights of similar solids of the same matter, are
 107. as the cubes of the lengths, it will be, $AB^3 : W :: FG^3 :$

108. $\frac{FG^3}{AB^3} W =$ the weight of the beam GH ; then by Cor. 2.

Prop. LXVII. the strength of the beam AB is AC^3 , and of FG is FH^3 ; and by Prop. LXIX. the stress at A is $\frac{1}{2} \overline{W+P} \times AB$.

and the stress at F is $\frac{FG^3}{2AB^3} W \times FG$; and since the beams

are both supposed to break with these weights, therefore the strength must be as the stress, that is, $\frac{1}{2} \overline{W+P} \times AB :$

$\frac{FG^4}{2AB^3} W (: : AC^3 : FH^3) : : AB^3 : FG^3$. Whence $\frac{FG^4 \times W}{2}$

$= FG^3 \times AB \times \frac{1}{2} \overline{W+P}$; or $FG \times W = AB \times \overline{W+2P}$. Whence $W : W+2P :: AB : FG$, the length required.

Cor. 1. If $eW = P$, then $FG = AB \times 1 + 2e$.

Cor. 2. Hence there is one and only one beam, that will just break by its own weight, or just sustain itself.

Cor. 3. The same Prop. will likewise hold good, in regard to two beams supported at both ends and breaking in the middle, by Cor. 3. Prop. LXX.

Cor. 4. If the beam FG break by its own weight, a beam of twice the length of FG , and supported at both ends, will also break by its own weight; or if one sustain itself, the other will.

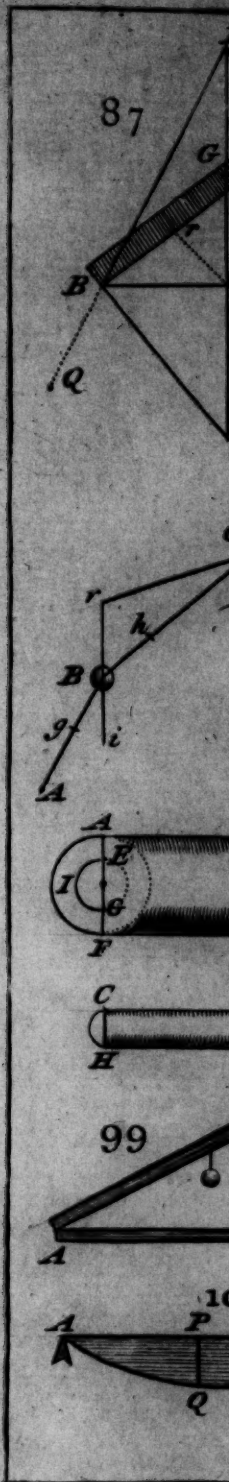
For the stress is the same in both of them, by Cor. 3. Prop. LXX, and Cor. 1. Prop. LXXI. each of them being equal to the stress of a beam, twice the length of FG , and suspended in the middle.

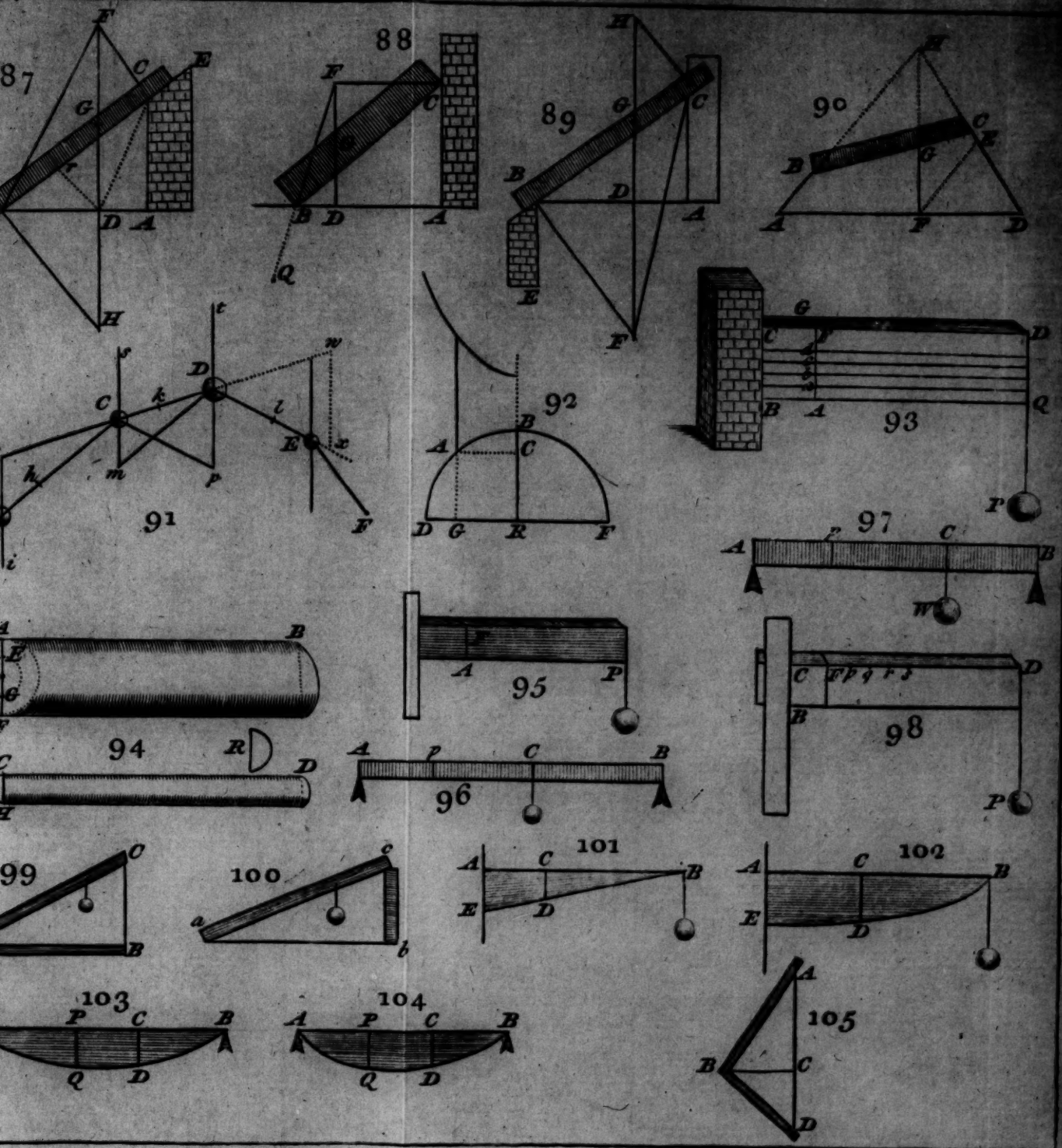
P R O P. LXXVI.

109. If any weight be laid on the beam AB , as at C , or any force ap-

110. plied to it at C , the beam will be bent through a space CD proportional to the weight or force applied at C , and the resistance of the beam will be as the space it is bent through, nearly.

In





In order to find the law of resistance of beams of timber or **FIG.** such like bodies, against any weights laid upon them, or strain- 109.
ing them; I took a piece of wood planed square, and sup- 110.
porting it at both ends *A, B*, I laid successively on the middle
of it at *C*, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 pounds; and I found the
middle point *C* to descend through the spaces 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7,
and 8, respectively. And repeating the same experiment
with the weights 3, 6, 9, lb. they all descended through spaces,
either accurately or very nearly as the numbers 1, 2, 3. I tried
the same thing with springs of metal, and found the space
through which they were bent, proportional to the weight sus-
pended. I also tried several experiments of this kind with wires,
hairs, and other elastic flexible bodies, by hanging weights
at them: and I found that the increase of their lengths, by
stretching, was, in each of them, proportional to the weights
hung at them: except when they were going to break, and
then the increase was something greater. It may be observed,
that none of these bodies regained their first figure, when the
weights were taken off, except well tempered springs; so that
there are no natural bodies perfectly elastic. And even springs
are observed by experience to grow weaker by often bending;
and by remaining some time unbent, will recover part of their
strength: and are something stronger in cold than in hot weather.
But at any time a spring, and all such bodies, observe this law,
that they have the least resistance when least bent, and in all cases
are bent through spaces nearly proportional to the weights or
forces applied. And therefore I think this law is sufficiently
established, that the resistance any of these bodies makes, is
proportional to the space through which it is bent; or that it
exerts a force proportional to the distance it is stretched to.

The knowledge of this property of springy bodies is of great
use in mechanics; for by this means a spring may be contrived
to pull at all times with equal strength, as in the fusee of a
watch. Or it may be made to draw in any proportion of
strength required.

The action of a spring may be compared to the lifting up a
chain of weights, lying upon a plane; or to the lifting a cylin-
der of timber out of the water endways.

PROP LXXVII.

FIG. To find the lateral strength of any beam of timber, whose transverse section is any figure whatsoever.

Let ERG be the section of the beam in the place where it breaks. Draw the ordinates IN , in , infinitely near each other, and parallel to the base RG .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Put } ER = d & EI = x \\ RG = b & IR = v \\ & IN = y \end{array}$$

The absolute strength of one fibre of the wood $= 1$.

When the beam breaks, it is done by the separation of the parts of the wood at E . Therefore QRE must be esteemed a bended lever, whose fulcrum is at R . When the beam breaks, the fibres at E are stretched to their full strength, but those nearer R are less stretched, and exert less force or resistance in proportion to their distance from R (by the last Prop.); and therefore the resistance of a fibre at $I = \frac{v}{d}$; and the resistance of all the fibres in the parallelogram In , $= \frac{v}{d} \times In$; and the power of all the fibres in the parallelogram, in regard to the brachium IR , is $= \frac{vv}{d} \times In$. And the sum of all the powers in the whole section $=$ sum of all the $\frac{vv}{d} \times In$.

Let g , p , be the distance of the centre of gravity and percussion from RG , as the axis of motion.

Then (by Cor. 1. Prop. LVII.) the sum of all the $vv \times In = gp \times$ sum of all the $In = gp \times$ section ERG . And the sum of all the $\frac{vv}{d} \times In = \frac{gp}{d} \times$ section ERG . Therefore the strength of the beam at E , is $= \frac{gp}{d} \times$ section ERG .

112. Cor. 1. If there be taken $RO = \frac{gp}{d}$; then all the fibres of the wood being supposed to be collected in O , and acting there with their full strength; their total strength at O , shall be equal to the strength of the beam, at the section ERG .

For

For suppose O to be such a point; then the strength of the beam, or $\frac{R^2}{d} \times \text{section } ERG = RO \times \text{section } ERG$, and $RO = \frac{R^2}{d}$.

Cor. 2. If the section be a parallelogram, $g = \frac{1}{2}d$, and $p = \frac{1}{3}d$, therefore $RO = \frac{1}{3}d$.

In a circle whose diameter is ER , $g = \frac{1}{4}d$, $p = \frac{1}{4}d$, and $RO = \frac{1}{4}d$, $= \frac{1}{3}d$ nearly, as in the parallelogram.

In the periphery of a circle (the beam being a hollow cane) $g = \frac{1}{4}d$, and $p = \frac{1}{4}d$, whence $RO = \frac{1}{4}d = \frac{1}{3}d$, nearly; as in the parallelogram.

In a triangle whose base is at E parallel to the horizon, and vertex at R ; $g = \frac{2}{3}d$, and $p = \frac{1}{3}d$, and $RO = \frac{1}{3}d$. And its strength $= \frac{1}{3}d \times \text{area of the triangle}$.

Cor. 2. The strength of a cylinder when twisted, wrested, or wrung round its axis, is equal to the lateral strength of a triangular beam whose height = radius, base = circumference of the cylinder; and vertex of the triangle at D .

For let $AD = r$, circ. $DEFG = c$, $Ap = v$, cir. $pqr = \frac{cv}{r}$. The resistance of a fibre at D is 1, and at p is $= \frac{v}{r}$, and the resistance of all the fibres in pqr is $= \frac{cv^2}{r}$; and the resistance of the fibres in pqr , in regard to the brachium pA is $= \frac{cv^2}{r} \times v$; and the total power of all the fibres in the whole section $DEFG$ is $= \frac{c}{r} \times \text{sum of all the } v^3 = \frac{c}{r} \times 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 \dots \text{to } r^3 = \frac{c}{r} \times \frac{r^4}{4}$; therefore the strength is $= \frac{cr^3}{4}$.

And in the triangle, the area being $\frac{cr}{2}$; and $d = r$, and the strength $= \frac{1}{2}r \times \frac{cr}{2} = \frac{cr^2}{4}$, the same as for the twisted cylinder.

SCHOL.

This Cor. 2. does not agree so well with timber as metal, for the texture of wood is not the same in length as breadth. For

P 2

all wood is composed of long slender tubular fibres, joined together by a glutinous matter, which is easily separated; and therefore wood is much more easily split than broken.

PROP. LXXVIII.

FIG. 113. Given the weight that will break a beam laterally; to find how much will break it when drawn in direction of its length.

Let DR be the beam.

Put $l =$ its length DE ,

$W =$ weight applied at D , that can break it at E ,

$d =$ depth ER ,

$g =$ distance of the centre of gravity of the section ERG from R ,

$p =$ distance of the centre of percussion of ERG from R ,

Then $\frac{dl}{gp}W =$ weight that will break it when drawn in direction of its length.

But if the beam be supported at both ends, and the weight breaks it in the middle; g and p must be measured from the upper side, and take l for half its length, W for half the weight that breaks it.

For by Cor. 1. of the last Prop. if $RO = \frac{gp}{d}$, then all the fibres of the beam acting at O , will be equal to the strength of the beam; and since W , applied at D , can break it in either case, therefore by the nature of the lever, it will be, $l \times W = RO \times \text{absolute strength} = \frac{gp}{d} \times \text{absolute strength}$, therefore the absolute strength $= \frac{ldW}{gp}$, or the weight that can break it, when drawn in length.

Cor. Hence, if there be taken $RL = \frac{gp}{d}$, then the weight which being applied at L , will just break the beam horizontally, the same will just pull it asunder, when applied lengthways.

For then $l = \frac{gp}{d}$, and weight $W =$ resistance at $O =$ strength of the whole beam.

Therefore

Therefore if a piece of oak, an inch square and a foot long, supported at both ends, bears 315 lb. before it breaks; it will bear, when drawn in length, 2835 lb. or 1 ton, 5 hundreds, 2 stone, 7 pound; that is, above a ton and a quarter. FIG. 113.

S C H O L.

Here we all along suppose that the fulcrum at *R* remains fixt; but if it should vary by the denting in of the parts at *R*, it will cause a little variation in the strength, and make the beam something weaker laterally. And that it will yield a little this way, is evident from experiments; for the hardest bodies, such as glass in small threads, may be extended in length, and consequently may be contracted by a contrary force; and balls of glass or wood, let fall upon a hard body, will rebound; which they cannot do without the denting in of the parts.

P R O P. LXXIX.

If a weight be laid upon the straight beam AB, supported at both ends; its bending or curvature will be nearly as the weight and length directly; and as the breadth and cube of the depth reciprocally. 114.

It is found by Prop. LXXVI. that if several weights be laid successively upon a horizontal beam *AB*, the space *CD*, through which the point descends, will be as the weight it bears. Now the parts at *e*, *f*, which are contiguous at the beginning of the descent, are gradually separated; till at last the beam breaks. At which time, when it can bear no more, the infinitely small distance *ef* is a given quantity. If *CD* be supposed very small, then *CD* is as the curvature at *D*, and this curvature is as the infinitely small angle *eDf*, that is, as $\frac{ef}{Df}$, and when it breaks,

as $\frac{1}{Df}$

Let *L* be the length of any beam, *b* its breadth, *Df* its depth; then (by Prop. LXXIII.) its strength, or the weight it will bear, is as $\frac{b \times Df^3}{L}$. Therefore put $\frac{b \times Df^3}{L}$ for the greatest weight, and

$\frac{1}{Df}$

FIG. 114. $\frac{1}{Df}$ for the curvature when breaking; W for any other weight, and C the correspondent curvature. And it will be as $\frac{b \times Df^3}{L} : \frac{1}{Df} :: W : C = \frac{LW}{b \times Df^3}$.

Cor. 1. The quantity of deflexion CD of any beam is as the weight and cube of the length directly, and the breadth and cube of the depth reciprocally.

For when CD is very small, ADB is very near a circle, or nearer a parabola; suppose it a circle, and let its radius be R ; then $2R \times CD = AD^2$ or $\frac{1}{4}LL$; therefore $\frac{CD}{LL} = \frac{1}{8R}$; whence $\frac{CD}{LL}$ is as the curvature C , that is as $\frac{LW}{b \times Df^3}$, or CD is as $\frac{WL^3}{b \times Df^3}$. And if ACB , the original position of the beam, is not a right line; yet CD will still be of the same quantity.

Cor. 2. In similar homogeneous straight bodies, the curvature is as the weight directly, and cube of the depth reciprocally; but the deflexion CD is as the weight directly, and depth reciprocally.

Cor. 3. In similar bodies bending from a straight line, by their own weight, the curvature is given; and the deflexion is as the square of the depth.

Cor. 4. In the utmost strength of beams, or their breaking position, the curvature is reciprocally as the depth; and the deflexion as the square of the length directly, and the depth reciprocally.

For then $b \times Df^3$ is as LW .

Cor. 5. What is said of straight beams, is equally true of any beams, in regard to the increase or variation of curvature, and to the deflexion from their original position.

SCHOL.

What is said of beams of timber in this section, is equally applicable to any solid bodies, acted on in a like manner as by weights. There are some bodies, in which a very little bending may have a great effect; as in the glasses of large telescopes. For (by Cor. 3. of the last Prop.) the deflexion from their true figure, arising from their own weight, is as the square of the

the diameter, when the glasses are similar. And though this FIG. be insensible in small glasses, it may produce some sensible error in large ones: and the same may happen to them in grinding by too much pressure.

From the foregoing propositions it follows, that if a certain beam of timber be able to support a given weight; another beam of the same timber, similar to the former, may be taken so great, as to be able but just to bear its own weight. And any bigger beam cannot support itself, but must break by its own weight; and any less beam will bear something more. For the strength being as the cube of the depth, and the stress being as the matter and length, is as the 4th power of the depth: it is plain the stress increases in a greater ratio than the strength. Whence it follows, that a beam may be taken so large, that the stress may far exceed the strength; and that, of all similar beams, there is but one that will support itself, and nothing more. Likewise if any beam can bear 10 times its own weight; no other similar beam will do the same. And the like holds in all machines, and in all animal bodies. And hence there is a certain limit, in regard to magnitude, not only in all machines and artificial structures, but also in natural ones, which neither art nor nature can go beyond; supposing them made of the same matter, and in the same proportion of parts.

Hence it is impossible that mechanic engines can be increased to any bigness. For when they arrive at a particular size, their several parts will break and fall asunder by their weight. Neither can any buildings of vast bigness be made to stand, but must fall to pieces by their great weight, and go to ruin. Vast columns and pyramids will break by their weight and tumble down.

It is likewise impossible for nature to produce animals of any vast size at pleasure; or any such thing as giants, or men of prodigious stature: except some sort of matter can be found to make the bones of, which is so much harder and stronger than any hitherto known: or else that the proportion of the parts be so much altered, and the bones and muscles made thicker in proportion; which will make the animal distorted and of a monstrous figure, and not capable of performing any proper actions. And being made similar and of common matter, they will not be able to stand or move, but being burdened by their own weight, must fall down.

Thus it is impossible that there can be any animal so big as to carry a castle upon his back; or any man so strong as to remove a mountain, or pull up a large oak by the roots: nature will not admit

FIG. admit of these things; whence it is impossible there can be animals of any sort beyond a determinate bigness.

Fish may indeed be produced to a larger size than land animals; because their weight is supported by the water. But yet they cannot be increased to immensity, because the internal parts will press upon one another by their weight, and destroy their fabric.

On the contrary, when the size of animals is diminished, their strength is not diminished in the same proportion as the weight; and therefore a small animal will carry far more than its own weight, whilst a great one cannot carry so much as its weight. And hence it is, that small animals are more active, will run faster, jump farther, or perform any motion quicker, for their weight, than large animals: for the lesser the animal the greater the proportion of the strength to the stress. And nature seems to know no bounds, as to the smallness of animals, at least in regard to their weight.

Neither can any two unequal and similar machines, resist any violence alike, or in the same proportion; but the greater will be more hurt than the lesser. And the same is true of animals; for large animals by falling break their bones, whilst lesser ones falling lower receive no damage. Thus a cat may fall 2 or 3 yards high and be no worse, and an ant from the top of a tower.

It is likewise impossible in the nature of things, that there can be any trees of immense bigness; if there were any such, their limbs, boughs, and branches, must break and fall down by their great weight. Thus it is impossible there can be an oak a quarter of a mile high; such a tree cannot grow or stand, but its limbs will drop off by their weight. And hence likewise, lesser plants can better sustain themselves than large ones can do.

Neither could a tree of an ordinary size be able to stand, if it was composed of the same tender matter that some plants consist of; nor such a plant if it was much bigger than common. And that plants, made of such tender matter may better support themselves, nature has made the trunks and branches of many of them hollow; by which means they are both lighter and stronger.

The propositions before laid down, concerning the strength and stress of timber, &c. are also of excellent use in several concerns of life, and particularly in architecture; and upon these principles a great many problems may be resolved relating to the due proportion of strength in several bodies, according to

to their particular positions and weights they are to bear; some of which I shall briefly enumerate.

If a piece of timber is to be holed with a mortise hole, the beam will be stronger when it is taken out of the middle, than if it be taken out of either side. And in a beam supported at both ends, it is stronger when the hole is taken out of the upper side than the under one, provided a piece of wood is driven hard in to fill up the hole.

If a piece is to be spliced upon the end of a beam to be supported at both ends; it will be stronger when spliced on the under side of a beam, than on the upper side. But if the beam is supported only at one end, to bear a weight on the other; it is stronger when spliced on the upper side.

When a small lever, &c. is nailed to a body, to move it or suspend it by; the strain is greater upon the nail nearest the hand, or point where the power is applied.

If a beam is supported at both ends; and the two ends reach over the props, and be fixt down immoveable; it will bear twice as much weight, as when the ends only lie loose or free upon the supporters.

If a slender cylinder is to be supported by two pieces; the distance of the pins ought to be $\frac{1}{10000}$ parts of the length of the cylinder, that is $\frac{1}{10000}$ its length; the pins equi-distant from its ends; and then the cylinder will endure the least bending or strain, by its weight.

By the foregoing principles it also follows, that a beam fixt at one end, and bearing a weight at the other; if it be cut in the form of a wedge and placed with its parallel sides parallel to the horizon; it will be equally strong every where; and no sooner break in one place than another. 115.

If a beam has all its sides cut into the form of a concave parabola, whose vertex is at the end, and abscissa perpendicular to the axis of the solid, and base a square, a circle, or any regular polygon; such a beam fixt horizontal, at one end, is equally strong throughout for supporting its own weight. 116.

By the same principles; if a wall faces the wind, and if the section of it be a right-angled triangle; or the foreside be perpendicular to the horizon, and the backside terminated by a sloping plane intersecting the other plane in the top of the wall; such a wall will be equally strong in all its parts to resist the wind; if the parts of the wall cohere strongly together. But if it be built of loose materials, it is better to be convex on the backside in form of a parabola.

FIG. If a wall is to support a bank of earth or any fluid body, it ought to be built concave in form of a semi-cubical parabola, whose vertex is at top of the wall; this is when the parts of the wall stick well together. But if the parts be loose, then a right line or sloping plane ought to be its figure. Such walls will be equally strong throughout.

All spires of churches in the form of cones or pyramids, are equally strong in all parts to resist the wind. But when the parts cohere not together; parabolic conoids are equally strong throughout.

Likewise if there be a pillar erected in form of the logarithmic curve, the asymptote being the axis; it cannot be crushed to pieces in one part sooner than in another, by its own weight. And if such a pillar be turned upside down, and suspended at the thick end, in the air; it will be no sooner pulled asunder in one part than another, by its own weight. And the case is the same, if the small end be cut off, and instead of it, a cylinder be added, whose height is half the subtangent.

117. Lastly, let AE be a beam in form of a triangular prism, and if $AD = \frac{1}{2}AB$, and $AI = \frac{1}{2}AC$, and the part $ADIF$ be cut away parallel to the base; the remaining beam $DICEF$ will bear a greater weight P , than the whole $ABCEG$, or the part will be stronger than the whole; which is a paradox in mechanics.

And upon the same principles, an infinite number of questions of like kind may be resolved; which are curious enough, and of great use in the common affairs of life.

All I shall here add, is the strength of several sorts of timber, and other bodies, as I have collected from experiments.

In the first edition of this book, I had inserted the strength of some sorts of wood, such as I had made experiments upon; in all which, I gave the least weight, which the worst of them was just able to bear: lest any body computing the strength of a beam, should overcharge it with too much weight. And since that time, I have made a great many more experiments, not only upon many different sorts of wood, but several other bodies; the result of which I shall here set down. A piece of good oak, an inch square, and a yard long, supported at both ends, will bear in the middle, for a very little time, about 330 pounds *averd.* but will break with more than that weight. This is at a medium; for there are some pieces that will carry something more; and others, not so much. But such a piece of wood should not, in practice, be trusted for any length of time, with above a third or a fourth part of that weight. For since this is the extreme weight which the best wood will bear, that

that of a worse sort must break with it. For I have found by FIG. experience, that there is a great deal of difference in strength, in different pieces of the very same tree; some pieces I have found, would not bear half the weight that others would do. The wood of the boughs and branches, is far weaker than that of the body; the wood of the great limbs, is stronger than that of the small ones; and the wood in the heart of a sound tree is strongest of all. I have also found by experience, that a piece of timber, which has borne a great weight for a small time, has broke with a far less weight, when left upon it, for a far longer time. Wood is likewise weaker when it is green, and strongest when thoroughly dried, and should be two or three years old at least. If wood happens to be sappy, it will be weaker upon that account, and will likewise decay sooner. Knots in wood weaken it very much, and this often causes it to break where a knot is. Also when wood is cross-grained, as it often happens in sawing; this will weaken it more or less, according as it runs more or less cross the grain. And I have found by experience, that tough wood, cross the grain, such as elm or ash, is seven, eight, or ten times weaker, than straight; and wood that easily splits, such as fir, is 16, 18, or 20 times weaker. And for common use, it is hardly possible to find wood but it must be subject to some of these things. Besides, when timber lies long in a building, it is apt to decay or be worm-eaten, which must needs very much impair its strength. From all which it appears, that a large allowance ought to be made for the strength of wood, when applied to any use, especially where it is designed to continue for a long time.

The proportion of the strength of several sorts of wood, and other bodies that I have tried, will appear in the following table.

Box, yew, plumtree, oak	—	—	11
Elm, ash	—	—	$8\frac{1}{2}$
Walnut, thorn	—	—	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Red fir, hollin, elder, plane	—	}	7
Crabtree, appletree	—		
Beech, cherrytree, hazle	—	—	$6\frac{2}{3}$
Alder, asp, birch, white fir,	—	}	6
Willow or saugh	—		
Iron	—	—	107
Brass	—	—	50
Bone	—	—	22
Lead	—	—	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Fine free stone	—	—	1

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FIG. In this table I have put several sorts of wood into one class together, which I found to be pretty near of the same strength; as I found sometimes one sort to exceed in strength, and sometimes another; there being a great difference, even in the same sort of wood: and I do not doubt but other people that shall make experiments, will find them as different and various as I have done, and perhaps quite different from mine, just according to the goodness or badness of the wood they use. But I have contented myself to set down what I found from my own experience, as the result of a great many trials, without any regard to what other people have done or may do. What I shall further add, is this:

A cylindric rod of good clean fir, of an inch circumference, drawn in length, will bear at extremity, 400lb. and a spear of fir, 2 inches diameter, will bear about 7 ton; but no more.

A rod of good iron of an inch circumference will bear near 3 ton weight.

A good hempen rope of an inch circumference will bear 1000l. at extremity.

All this supposes these bodies to be sound and good throughout, but none of these should be put to bear more than a third or a fourth part of that weight, especially for any length of time.

From what has been said; if a spear of fir, or a rope, or a spear of iron, of d inches diameter, was to lift $\frac{1}{4}$ the extreme weight; then

The fir would bear $8\frac{1}{4} dd$ hundred weight.

The rope $22 dd$ hundred weight.

The iron $6\frac{3}{4} dd$ ton weight.

S E C T. IX.

The properties of fluids; the principles of hydrostatics, hydraulics, and pneumatics.

P R O P. LXXX.

Motion or pressure in a fluid is not propagated in right lines; but equally all around, in all manner of directions.

If a force act at *a* in direction *ab*, that motion can be directed F I G. no further than these particles lie in a right line, as to *c*. But 118. the particle *c* will urge the particles *d, f* obliquely, by which that motion is conveyed to *e, g*. And these particles *e, g* will urge the particles *n, p* and *r, s* obliquely, which lie nearest them. Therefore the pressure, as soon as it is propagated to particles that lie out of right lines, begins to deflect towards one side and the other; and that pressure being farther continued, will deflect into other oblique directions, and so on. Therefore the pressure and motion is propagated obliquely ad infinitum; and will therefore be propagated in all directions.

Cor. If any part of a pressure propagated through a fluid, be 119.
stopt by an obstacle; the remaining part will deflect into the spaces behind the obstacle. Thus if a wave proceeds from C, and a part goes through the hole A; it expands itself, and forms a new wave beyond the hole, which moves forward in a semi-circle whose centre is the hole.

For any part of a fluid pressing against the next, is equally re-acted on by the next, and that by the next to it, and so on; from whence follows a lateral pressure (equal to the direct pressure) into the places behind the obstacle.

P R O P.

PROP. LXXXI.

A fluid can only be at rest when its surface is placed in a horizontal situation.

FIG. For let $ABCD$ be a vessel of water or any fluid: and let AB
 120. be parallel to the horizon. Suppose the surface of the liquor to be in the position FE . Then because the parts of the fluid are easily moveable among themselves; therefore (by ax. 7.) the higher parts at E will, by their gravity, continually descend to the lower places at F . Also the greater pressure under E and the lesser under F , will cause the parts at E to descend, and those at F to ascend. And thus the higher parts of the fluid at E descending, and spreading themselves over the lower parts at F , which are at the same time ascending, the surface of the fluid will at last be reduced to a horizontal position AB . But being settled in this position, since there is no part higher than another; there is no tendency in any one part to descend, more than in another; and therefore the fluid will rest in an horizontal position.

121. *Cor. 1. If the fluid does not gravitate in parallel lines, but towards a fixed point or center C ; then the fluid can only be at rest when its surface takes the form of a spherical surface AB , whose center is C .*

For if any parts of the surface of the fluid A or B , were further from C than the rest, they would continually flow down to the places nearer C , towards which their weights are directed: till at last they would be all equi-distant from it.

Cor. 2. Any fluid being disturbed, will of itself return to the same level, or horizontal position.

122. *Cor. 3. Hence also if a different fluid $ABEF$ rest upon the fluid $ABCD$; both the surface FE , and the surface AB that divides them, will lie in a level or horizontal situation, when at rest.*

For if any part of the surface AB be higher than the rest, it will descend to the same level; and since FE is also level, and therefore the heights AF , BE in every place equal; the pressure of it on all the parts of the horizontal surface AB , will be equal. And therefore it cannot descend in one place more than another, but will continue level.

Cor.

Cor. 4. Hence water communicating with two places, or any way conveyed from one place to another; will rise to the same level in both places. Except so far as it is hindered by the friction of the channel it moves through, or perhaps some very small degree of tenacity or cohesion. FIG. 122.

P R O P. LXXXII.

In any fluid remaining at rest; every part of it, at the same depth, is in an equal state of compression.

For let the plane *EF* be parallel to the surface *AB*. Then since the height of the fluid at all the points of *EF*, is equal; therefore the weights standing upon any equal parts of *EF* are equal: and therefore the pressure in all the points of *EF* is equal also. 123.

Cor. 1. A fluid being at rest, the pressure at any depth is as the depth.

For this pressure depends on the weight of the superincumbent fluid, and therefore is as its height.

Cor. 2. In any given place, a fluid presses equally in all directions.

For, (by Prop. LXXX.) as the pressure in any place acts in all directions, it must be the same in all directions. For if it were less in one direction than another, the fluid would move that way, till the pressure becomes equal, and then the fluid would be at rest, and be equally compressed in all directions.

Cor. 3. The pressure is equal in every part of a plane drawn parallel to the horizon.

Cor. 4. When a fluid is at rest, each drop or particle of it is equally pressed on all sides, by the weight of the fluid above it.

P R O P.

PROP. LXXXIII.

If a fluid be at rest in any vessel, whose base is parallel to the horizon; the pressure of the fluid upon the base is as the base and perpendicular altitude of the fluid; whatever be the figure of the containing vessel.

CASE I.

- FIG. 123. Let $ABCD$ be a cylinder or prism, then (by Cor. 1. Prop. LXXXII.) the pressure upon a given part of the base, (as a square inch,) is as the depth. And the pressure upon the whole base is as the number of parts, or inches, contained in it; and therefore is as the base and altitude of the fluid.

CASE II.

124. Let the heights and bases of the vessels ABC , DEF be equal to those of the cylinder $ABCD$; then since any part of the bases AB or DE is equally prest, as an equal part of the base CD ; therefore the whole pressure upon the bases AB or DE is equal to the whole pressure upon the base CD . And therefore is as the base and perpendicular height.

Cor. 1. *If two vessels ABC , DEF of equal base and height, though never so different in their capacities, be filled with any the same fluid, their bases will sustain an equal quantity of pressure; the same as a cylinder of the same base and height.*

Cor. 2. *The quantity of pressure at any given depth, upon a given surface, is always the same, whether the surface pressed be parallel to the horizon, or perpendicular, or oblique; or whether the fluid continued upwards from the compressed surface, rises perpendicularly in a rectilinear direction, or creeps obliquely through crooked cavities and canals, and whether these passages are regular or irregular, wide or narrow. And hence*

125. Cor. 3. *If $ABDCF$ be any vessel containing a fluid, and BL , ED , $HFOK$, and GC be perpendicular to the horizon, and $GHAB$ the surface of the liquor; and FL , COD parallel to AB , then the pressure at L and F is at BL or HF ; at D , O and C , as ED ; at K as HK ; and therefore the pressure at L and F is the same; and the pressures at D , O , C are equal.*

Cor.

Cor. 4. The pressure is every where directed perpendicularly against the inner surface of the vessel; therefore at K it is directed downward, at L sideways, and at F upwards. By Prop. IX.

Cor. 5. If two vessels, AB, CD communicate with one another by the tube BC, and if any liquor be poured into one AB, it will rise to the same height in the other CD, and will stand at equal heights in both; that is, AD will be a horizontal line.

For if the fluid stand at unequal heights, the pressure in the higher will be greater than in the lower, and cause it to move towards the lower.

Cor. 6. If two different fluids sustain one another at rest, in two vessels AB, CD, that communicate, their height above their place of meeting will be reciprocally as their densities or specific gravities.

Let the fluids join at C, and take the perpendicular height of Cc , equal to that of AB ; then if the densities of the fluids were equal, they would sustain one another at the equal heights AB, Cc ; therefore that the pressure of the other fluid may be the same at C, its height must be so much greater as the density is less; that is, $CD : Cc$ or $AB :: \text{density of } AB : \text{density of } CD$.

S C H O L.

The truth of the foregoing propositions may be easily proved experimentally. Take several tubes open at both ends, some straight, some crooked, with their low ends turned in all directions, and of several sizes, regular and irregular; put these into a vessel of water to any depth, and the water will rise up to the height of the external surface of the water in them all. But this is to be understood of such tubes as are sufficiently wide; for, in capillary tubes immersed in a vessel of water, it rises something above the level, and that to heights reciprocally as the diameters. Likewise, if water can rise and be suspended at the height B in the capillary tube AB , it will be suspended at the same height B , whilst the part of the tube at B remains the same, whatever be the figure or wideness of the under part CD ; and the ascent and suspension of water is the very same in vacuo. The same holds for any other fluids; but different fluids rise to different heights; but quicksilver, instead of ascending in a tube, sinks in it, and has its surface depressed below the common surface, to depths which are reciprocally as

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the

FIG. the diameters of the tubes; but the forces by which fluids are
 129. suspended in capillary tubes come under no hydrostatic laws.

PROP. LXXXIV.

If a homogeneous body be immersed in a fluid of the same density with itself, it will remain at rest in any place, and in any position; but a body of greater density than the fluid will sink to the bottom, and a body of less density will rise to the top.

CASE I.

130. Let the body *EGF* be immersed in the fluid *AD*; then since the body is of the same density as the fluid, therefore the body will press the fluid under it just as much as the same quantity of the fluid put in its place; and therefore the pressure of the body, together with that of the fluid above it, presses the fluid below as much as a column of the fluid of the same depth; therefore the pressure of the body at *F* against the fluid, is equal to the pressure of the fluid at *F* against the body; and therefore these two pressures will remain in equilibrio, and the body will be at rest.

CASE II.

If the body is more dense, the pressure against the fluid underneath is greater than that of an equal quantity of the fluid; therefore the weight of the body will overcome the pressure of the fluid under it, and it will sink; but if the body be lighter, the pressure of the fluid will overcome the weight of the body, and it will rise to the top.

Cor. 1. If several fluids of different densities, be mixed together in the same vessel, the heaviest will get to the lowest place, and the lightest to the top, and those of a mean density to the middle; and in any bodies whatever the heaviest will be the lowest.

Cor. 2. Hence bodies placed in fluids have a twofold gravity, the one true and absolute, the other apparent or relative. Absolute gravity is the force with which bodies tend downward: by this all sorts of fluid bodies gravitate in their proper places, and their weights taken

taken together compose the weight of the whole ; for the whole is heavy, as may be experienced in vessels full of liquor. FIG. 130.

Relative gravity is the excess of the gravity of the body above that of the fluid. By this kind of gravity fluids do not gravitate in their proper places ; that is, they do not preponderate ; but, hindering one another's descent, remain in their proper places as if they were not heavy.

Cor. 3. Hence an irregular body, or one that is heterogeneous, descending into a fluid, or if it move in any direction, and a line be drawn connecting the centre of gravity and centre of magnitude of the body, the body will so dispose itself as to move in that line, and that the centre of gravity will go foremost, and the centre of magnitude behind.

For there being more matter and less surface near the centre of gravity, that part will be less resisted than near the centre of magnitude ; therefore the centre of magnitude will be more retarded than the centre of gravity, and will be left behind.

Cor. 4. Hence no body can be at rest within a fluid, unless it be of the same specific gravity as the fluid.

S C H O L.

What is here said of bodies of greater density sinking in a fluid, must be understood of such as are solid ; for if a body be hollow it may swim in a fluid of less density ; but if the hollows or cavities be filled with the fluid, it will then sink. Likewise, bodies of greater specific gravity, being reduced to extremely small particles, may then be suspended in the fluid. But the forces by which this is done belong not to any laws of hydrostatics.

P R O P. LXXXV.

Bodies immersed in a fluid and suspended in it, lose the weight of an equal bulk of the fluid.

For (by the last Prop.) if the body *EF* be of the same density as the fluid, it loses all its weight, and neither endeavours to ascend or descend ; therefore if it be lighter or heavier, it

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only

FIG. only endeavours to ascend or descend with the difference of the weights of the body and the fluid; and has therefore lost the weight of as much of the fluid.

Cor. 1. The fluid acquires the weight which the body loses.

For the sum of the weights of the solid and fluid is the same, both before and after immersion.

Cor. 2. All bodies of equal magnitude immersed in a fluid, lose equal weights; and unequal bodies lose weights proportional to their bulks.

Cor. 3. The weights lost by immersing one and the same body in different fluids, are as the densities of the fluids, or as their specific gravities.

Cor. 4. Hence also, if two bodies of unequal bulks, be in equilibrium in one fluid, they will lose their equilibrium in another fluid, of different density.

SCHOL.

Since a body immersed in a fluid loses so much weight as that of an equal quantity of the fluid, therefore it tends downwards, only with the difference of these weights; and this is the relative gravity of the body in the fluid. But if the body is specifically lighter than the fluid, it seems to lose more weight than it has; and hence the body will tend upwards with the difference of these weights. And this is the relative levity of the body in the fluid; such as we see in feathers or smoke in the air, or cork in water.

PROP. LXXXVI.

The weight of a solid body floating upon a fluid, is equal to the weight of a quantity of the fluid, as big as the immersed part of the solid, cut off by the plane of the surface of the fluid.

For if the body be at rest, the pressure of the body upon the fluid underneath is just the same as the pressure of the fluid in the

the

the room of the immerfed part ; and therefore the weight of **FIG.** one is equal to the weight of the other.

Cor. 1. If the body be homogeneous, the weight or magnitude of the whole floating body is to the weight or magnitude of the part immerfed : : as the density or specific gravity of the fluid, is to the density or specific gravity of the body.

For the density of the fluid : density of the body : : weight (of the fluid equal to the immerfed part, or the weight) of the whole body : weight of the immerfed part.

Cor. 2. If one and the same body float or swim upon different liquids, the immerfed part in each liquid will be reciprocally as their densities ; and therefore a body will sink deeper in a lighter fluid than in a heavier.

P R O P. LXXXVII.

If a floating body AFBE, or system of bodies, be at rest in a fluid, 131. and D be the centre of gravity of the whole body, and C the centre of gravity of the fluid AFB equal to the immerfed part of the body, then I say the line CD will be perpendicular to the horizon.

For as C is the centre of gravity of the fluid AFB, it is the centre of all the forces or weights of the parts of the water in AFB, tending downwards ; but because the body is at rest, the same point C is also the centre of all the pressures of the fluid underneath tending upwards, by which the weight of the fluid AFB or of the body AFBE (equal to it by Prop. last) is sustained ; therefore the sum of all the forces tending upwards to C, is equal and contrary to the sum of all the forces tending downwards from D (by Ax. 11.) because that pressure sustains the body ; but the weight of the body tending from D is perpendicular to the horizon ; therefore CD is perpendicular to the horizon.

Cor. If the whole body be as heavy, or heavier than water, and be immerfed in it, the centre of gravity will be the lowest, and descend the foremost.

P R O P.

FIG.

P R O P. LXXXVIII.

If a fluid, considered without weight, be enclosed in a vessel, and strongly compressed on all sides, every part within it will be in the same compressed state.

For if any particle was less pressed than another, the greater pressure would move the fluid towards the less compressed part, till their compression became every where equal; and then the equal pressures would balance one another, and remain at rest.

132. *Cor. 1. Hence any soft body, as GHI, whose parts cannot be condensed, being immersed in a fluid enclosed in a vessel, and strongly compressed on every side, the body will retain its figure, and suffer no change from the compression of the ambient fluid; and all its parts will remain at rest among themselves, and in the same compressed state as the fluid.*

Cor. 2. The motion of any included body, as E, or of any number of bodies, will not be at all changed by the compression of the fluid, but will remain the same as before.

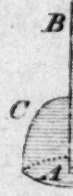
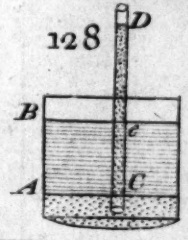
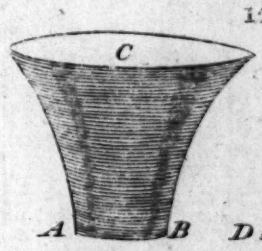
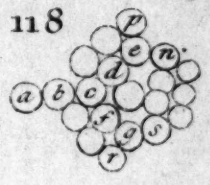
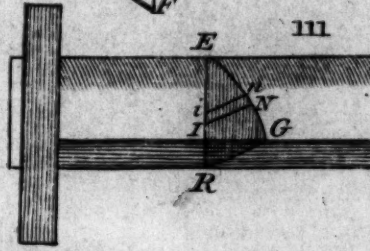
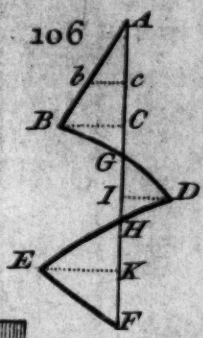
For the compression acting every way alike, can make no alteration in the motion of bodies.

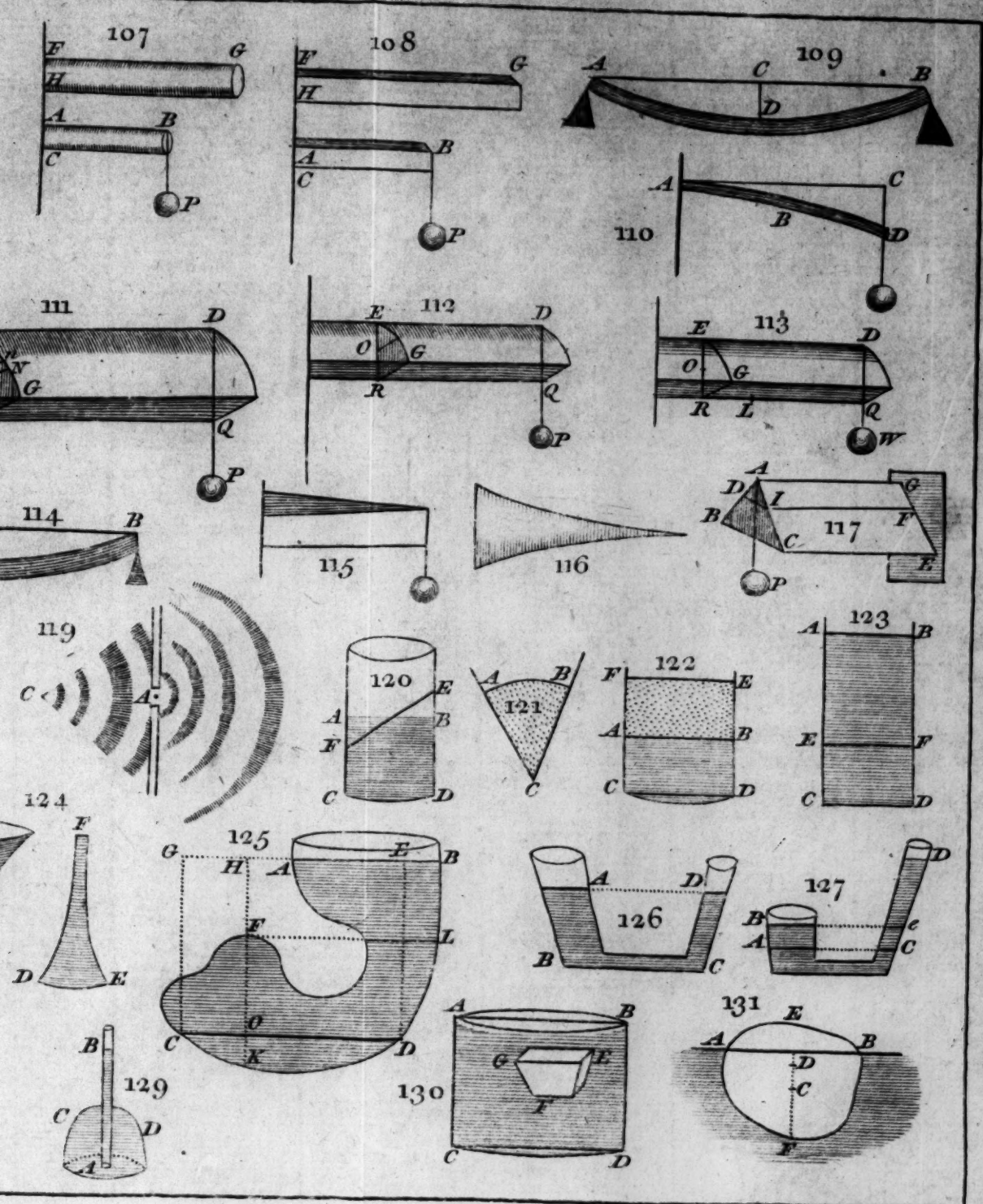
Cor. 3. In an inflexible vessel, a fluid will not sustain a stronger pressure on one side than another, but will give way to any excess of pressure in a moment of time, and be reduced to an equality of pressure.

P R O P. LXXXIX.

130. *If air or any elastic fluid of small density, be shut up in a close vessel, every part of it will be in the same compressed state.*

For let *ABCD* be a vessel full of enclosed air, then the air at equal altitudes within the vessel will be in the same state of compression; and the compression in the bottom of the vessel can only exceed that at the top, by the weight of a column of air of the height of the vessel *AC* (by *Cor. I. Prop. LXXXII.*); but the





the weight of such a column of air is insensible in respect of the external pressure, or the pressure of the height of the atmosphere; and therefore the compression in every part of the vessel may be looked upon to be the same.

Cor. 1. In like manner the compression of the air in any two places near the earth's surface, is very nearly the same.

For the difference is only the weight of a column of air, whose height is the difference of the heights of the two places, which is very inconsiderable.

Cor. 2. If air be compressed in any vessel by the pressure of the external air, its elastic force is equal to the force and pressure of the external air.

Cor. 3. The air does the same thing by its spring as a non-elastic fluid does by its weight or pressure.

For the spring or elasticity of the air, is the force it exerts against the force of compression, and therefore must be equal to it.

SCHOL.

That the air is a heavy, elastic, compressible body, is confirmed by many experiments made for that purpose. Its properties are these,

1. The air has some, though a very small degree of weight, which is so small that it hardly becomes sensible, but in the weight of the whole atmosphere, or body of air enclosing the earth.

2. The air is an elastic fluid, and capable of being condensed and rarefied; and when it is condensed or forced into a less space, its spring, or the force it exerts to unbind itself, is proportional to the force that compresses it; and the space any given quantity takes up is reciprocally as the compressing force, or its elasticity is as its density.

3. All the air near the earth is in a compressed state, by the weight of the atmosphere or body of the air above, which compresses it; and from hence the density of the air grows continually less, the higher it is above the surface of the earth. The weight of the atmosphere at the surface of the earth, is at a medium about $14\frac{1}{2}$ lb. averd. upon every square inch; but at different times it differs, by reason of winds, hot or cold weather, &c. But the height of the atmosphere is uncertain, by reason it grows

FIG. grows continually more rare towards the top, till it vanishes. The weight of the atmosphere is equal to the weight of water 11 yards high.

4. The spring or elasticity of the air is increased by heat, and decreased by cold; so that if any quantity of air be enclosed in a vessel, it will have a greater spring or pressure when heated, and will lose part of its spring by cold.

PROP. XC.

To find the specific gravity of bodies.

CASE I.

If it be a solid body heavier than water, weigh it exactly, first in air, and then in water, or some fluid whose specific gravity you know, and let

The absolute weight of the body = A,

The weight in water, &c. = B,

The specific gravity of water, &c. = C,

The specific gravity of the body = D,

Then will $D = \frac{A}{A-B} C$, the specific gravity of the body.

CASE II.

For a solid body lighter than water. Take any piece of metal, and tie it to a piece of the light body, so that the compound may sink in water: and putting A, C, D, as in Case I. and

E = weight of the metal in water.

F = weight of the compound in water.

Then $D = \frac{AC}{A+E-F}$, the specific gravity of the light body.

CASE III.

For a fluid. Take a solid body of known specific gravity, which will sink in the fluid; and putting the same letters as in Case I. then will $C = \frac{A-B}{A} D$, the specific gravity of the fluid.

Or

Or thus:

P.P.G.

Take a body that will sink in the fluid and also in water, and let

A = absolute weight of the body,

B = its weight in water,

G = its weight in the fluid,

C = specific gravity of water,

Z = specific gravity of the fluid required,

Then $Z = \frac{A-G}{A-B} C$.

But for mercury, or for powders, dust, or small fragments of bodies, you must use a glass or metal bucket, observing to balance its weight both in air and water; and for bodies that will dissolve in water, weigh them in oil of turpentine instead of water; when the body is weighed in the fluid, it must be suspended by a horse hair, or a fine silk thread. Note, if the body and fluid be near the same specific gravity, your work will be more exact.

To demonstrate the rules, it is evident (by Prop. LXXXV.) that a body weighed in water, loses the weight of as much water, therefore in Case I. the weight of an equal quantity of water is $A-B$, but (by Def. 11.) the specific gravities are as the weights of equal quantities of matter, therefore $A-B : A :: C : D$.

And in Case II. $F-E$ = weight of the light body in water, (which is negative when E is greater than F) and the weight of an equal quantity of water is $A-\overline{F-E}$ or $A+E-F$, therefore (as in Case I.) it is $A+E-F : A :: C : D$; and the rule is equally true, whether D be lighter or heavier than water.

In Case III. since $D = \frac{A}{A-B} C$, therefore $C = \frac{A-B}{A} D$; or in the other rule, $A-B$ = weight of as much water, and $A-G$ = weight of as much of the fluid, and the specific gravities being as the weights of equal quantities of the matter, therefore $A-B : A-G :: C : Z$.

Cor. 1. Hence if a piece of metal, or any sort of matter is offered, to know what sort it is of, find its specific gravity by the rule above, which seek in the following table, and the nearest to it gives the name of the body, or what kind it is of.

FIG. *Cor. 2. And to find the solid content of a small body heavier than water, weigh it in air and water, and the difference of the weights reduced to grains, being divided by 256, the quotient is the cubic inches it contains.*

For a cubic inch of water weighs 256 grains, or a cubic foot weighs 76lb. troy, or $62\frac{1}{4}$ lb. avoirdupoise, which is but 254 grains to an inch.

Cor. 3. Hence also the solidity of a body being known, the weight may be found, and the contrary: Thus, put $n = 0.5275$ ounces troy, or 0.5787 ounces avoirdupois, and $D =$ specific gravity of the body, by the following table, then as $1:nD ::$ solid content in inches : weight in ounces, and one being given, finds the other.

For the weight of a cubic inch of water is $.5275$ oz. troy, or $.5787$ oz. avoirdupoise.

A TABLE of the specific gravities of bodies.

SOLIDS.

Fine Gold	—	—	—	19.640
Standard Gold	—	—	—	18.888
Lead	—	—	—	11.340
Fine Silver	—	—	—	11.092
Standard Silver	—	—	—	10.536
Copper	—	—	—	9.000
Copper Halfpence	—	—	—	8.915
Fine Brass	—	—	—	8.350
Cast Brass	—	—	—	8.100
Steel	—	—	—	7.850
Iron	—	—	—	7.644
Pewter	—	—	—	7.471
Tin	—	—	—	7.320
Cast Iron	—	—	—	7.000
Lead Ore	—	—	—	6.200
Copper Ore	—	—	—	5.167
Lapis Calaminaris	—	—	—	5.000
Load-stone	—	—	—	4.930
Crude Antimony	—	—	—	4.000
Diamond	—	—	—	3.517
White Lead	—	—	—	3.160
Island Crystal	—	—	—	2.720
Marble				

Sect. IX. HYDROSTATICS, &c.

131

Marble	—	—	—	—	—	2.707
Pebble Stone	—	—	—	—	—	2.700
Coral	—	—	—	—	—	2.700
Jasper	—	—	—	—	—	2.666
Rock Crystal	—	—	—	—	—	2.650
Pearl	—	—	—	—	—	2.630
Glass	—	—	—	—	—	2.600
Flint	—	—	—	—	—	2.570
Onyx Stone	—	—	—	—	—	2.510
Common Stone	—	—	—	—	—	2.500
Glauber Salt	—	—	—	—	—	2.250
Crystal	—	—	—	—	—	2.210
Oyster Shells	—	—	—	—	—	2.092
Brick	—	—	—	—	—	2.000
Earth	—	—	—	—	—	1.984
Nitre	—	—	—	—	—	1.900
Vitriol	—	—	—	—	—	1.880
Alabaster	—	—	—	—	—	1.874
Horn	—	—	—	—	—	1.840
Ivory	—	—	—	—	—	1.820
Brimstone	—	—	—	—	—	1.800
Chalk	—	—	—	—	—	1.793
Borax	—	—	—	—	—	1.717
Alum	—	—	—	—	—	1.714
Clay	—	—	—	—	—	1.712
Dry Bone	—	—	—	—	—	1.660
Human Calculus	—	—	—	—	—	1.542
Sand	—	—	—	—	—	1.520
Gum Arabic	—	—	—	—	—	1.400
Opium	—	—	—	—	—	1.350
Lignum Vitæ	—	—	—	—	—	1.327
Coal	—	—	—	—	—	1.250
Jet	—	—	—	—	—	1.238
Coral	—	—	—	—	—	1.210
Ebony	—	—	—	—	—	1.177
Pitch	—	—	—	—	—	1.150
Rosin	—	—	—	—	—	1.100
Mahogany	—	—	—	—	—	1.063
Amber	—	—	—	—	—	1.040
Brazil Wood	—	—	—	—	—	1.031
Box Wood	—	—	—	—	—	1.030
Common WATER	—	—	—	—	—	1.000
Bees Wax	—	—	—	—	—	.955
Butter	—	—	—	—	—	.940

S 2

Logwood

FLUIDS.

Quickfilver	—	—	—	14.000
Oil of Vitriol	—	—	—	1.700
Oil of Tartar	—	—	—	1.550
Honey	—	—	—	1.450
Spirit of Nitre	—	—	—	1.315
Aqua Fortis	—	—	—	1.300
Treacle	—	—	—	1.290
Aqua Regia	—	—	—	1.234
Spirit of Urine	—	—	—	1.120
Human Blood	—	—	—	1.054
Sack	—	—	—	1.033
Urine	—	—	—	1.032
Milk	—	—	—	1.031
Sea Water	—	—	—	1.030
Serum of human Blood	—	—	—	1.030
Ale	—	—	—	1.028
Vinegar	—	—	—	1.026
Tar	—	—	—	1.015
WATER	—	—	—	1.000
Distilled Waters	—	—	—	.993
Red Wine	—	—	—	.990
Linseed Oil	—	—	—	.932
Brandy	—	—	—	.927
Oil Olive	—	—	—	.913
Spirit of Turpentine	—	—	—	.874
Spirit of Wine	—	—	—	.866
Oil of Turpentine	—	—	—	.810
Common Air	—	—	—	.0012

In this table you have the mean specific gravities; for there is some difference in different pieces of the same sort of body, by reason of their different goodness, fineness, compactness, texture, dryness, being more or less free from mixture, &c. And sometimes by a greater degree of heat or cold, which affect all bodies a little, from whence there will arise a sensible difference in different parcels of the same sort of matter, in almost all bodies, whether solid or fluid. Particularly in wood, there is great difference, for green wood is far heavier than dry wood, and some green wood will sink in water, as elm.

P R O P. XCI.

The centre of pressure of any plane sustaining a fluid pressing against it, is the same as the centre of percussion; supposing the axis of motion to be at the intersection of this plane with the surface of the fluid.

The centre of pressure is that point against which a force being applied equal and contrary to the whole pressure, it will just sustain it, so as the body pressed on will incline to neither side. FIG. 133.

Let AF be the surface of the water, O the centre of pressure, draw AO , and parallel to AF draw cbd ; then the pressure against any small part cd , is as cd and the depth of the fluid, that is as $cd \times Ab$; and the force to turn the plane about O , is $cd \times Ab \times bO$, or $cd \times Ab \times AO - cd \times Ab^2$; and the sum of them all must be equal to 0. Therefore $AO = \frac{\text{sum of all } cd \times Ab^2}{\text{sum of all } cd \times Ab}$; and therefore (by Prop. LVII.) O is the same as the centre of percussion.

Cor. 1. The centre of pressure, upon a plane parallel to the horizon, or upon any plane where the pressure is uniform, is the same as the centre of gravity of that plane.

For the pressure acts upon every part in the same manner as gravity does.

Cor. 2. The quantity of pressure upon any plane surface is equal to that of the same plane, placed parallel to the horizon, at the depth

FIG. depth where its centre of gravity is; and the same is true of any number of surfaces taken together.

133. For the whole pressure is as the sum of all the $Ab \times cd$, and upon the whole figure placed at the centre of gravity, it is $ABC \times$ distance of the centre of gravity from A , but (by Cor. 3. Prop. XLIV.) these products are equal; and the same may be proved for several surfaces, or the surface of any solid, taking the centre of gravity of all these surfaces.

PROP. XCII.

To find the centre of equilibrium of a body, or a system of bodies, immersed in a fluid.

The centre of equilibrium is the same with respect to bodies immersed in a fluid, as the centre of gravity is to bodies in free space; it is a certain point, upon which if the body or bodies be suspended, they will rest in any position.

67. Let A, B, C , be three bodies, or the quantities of matter in them, p, q, r , their relative gravities in the fluid, 1 = absolute gravity, then pA, qB, rC , are the weights of A, B, C , in the fluid; let G be the centre of equilibrium, then, by the same reasoning as in Prop. XLVII. the sum of the forces of A, B, C , is $pA \times Aa + qB \times Bb + rC \times Cc = Gg \times pA + qB + rC$, the sum of the forces or weights when situated in G , whence $G = \frac{Aa \times pA + Bb \times qB + Cc \times rC}{pA + qB + rC}$, the distance of the centre of equilibrium from ST , in the fluid; And if any body, as A , is lighter than the fluid, then its relative gravity p will be negative; and if any body is situated on the other side of the plane, its distance from it must be taken negative.

Cor. If the body or bodies be homogeneous, the centre of equilibrium is the same as the centre of gravity.

SCHOL.

The relative gravity is found thus: take the specific gravity of the fluid from that of the body, and divide the remainder by the specific gravity of the body, and these specific gravities are had by Prop. XC.

PROP.

P R O P. XCIII.

If a system of bodies oscillate in a fluid, without resistance, to find the length of an isocronal pendulum vibrating in vacuo.

Because particles of different specific gravities, placed in any given point, will require different times of vibrating in the fluid, therefore we must find the point where a particle of infinite density being placed will vibrate in the same time as the system; and this will be the centre of oscillation: for this particle will lose nothing of its weight in the fluid, its relative gravity being the same as the absolute; whence the vibrations of this particle will be performed in the same time as in vacuo.

Let A, B, C be three bodies, or their quantities of matter; p, q, r their relative gravities in the fluid; 1 = absolute gravity; then pA, qB, rC are the weights of the bodies in the fluid. Let G be the centre of equilibrium, and O the centre of oscillation sought. Put $s = A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2$. Then (by the same reasoning, and construction, as in Prop. LVIII.) the angular velocities which the bodies A, B, C generate in the system are, $\frac{-Se \times pA}{s}, \frac{Sn \times qB}{s}, \frac{Sd \times rC}{s}$; and the whole angular velocity generated by them all, is $\frac{-Se \times pA + Sn \times qB + Sd \times rC}{s}$.

Likewise the angular velocity which the particle P , situated in O , generates in the system, is $\frac{Sr \times P}{P \times SO^2}$ or $\frac{Sr}{SO^2}$. But their vibrations are performed alike; therefore their angular velocities must be equal. That is $\frac{-Se \times pA + Sn \times qB + Sd \times rC}{s} = \frac{Sr}{SO^2} =$

$\frac{Sg}{SG \times SO}$. Whence $SO = \frac{Sg}{SG} \times \frac{s}{-Se \times pA + Sn \times qB + Sd \times rC}$. But (by Prop. XCII.) $-Se \times pA + Sn \times qB + Sd \times rC = Sg \times pA + qB + rC$, therefore $SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SG \times pA + qB + rC}$, the length of an isocronal pendulum, out of the fluid.

Cor.

FIG. Cor. 1. Hence if the bodies are homogeneous, then $p = q = r$,
 81. and $SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{p \times SG \times A + B + C}$.

Cor. 2. The system makes an exceeding small vibration in the fluid, in the same time that a simple pendulum, whose length is $\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SG \times pA + qB + rC}$, makes a vibration in vacuo.

For the velocity of the system being very small, the resistance is inconsiderable.

Cor. 3. Hence if SA be the length of a simple pendulum (A), vibrating in a fluid, then $\frac{SA}{p}$ is the length of an isochronal pendulum in vacuo.

For in a single body $SO = \frac{A \times SA^2}{SA \times pA}$ or $\frac{SA}{p}$.

Cor. 4. And if p be negative, or the pendulum specifically lighter than the fluid, the pendulum will turn upside down, and vibrate upwards in the fluid; and the length of an isochronal pendulum out of the fluid, will be $\frac{SA}{p}$, as before.

SCHOL.

The centre of percussion is the same in a fluid as out of it; for there is nothing concerned in that but the quantities of matter and velocities; both of which are the same in the fluid as out of the fluid.

The relative gravities p, q, r are found by the Schol. of the last Prop.

PROP. XCIV.

If a fluid runs through any tube, pipe, or canal, and always fills it, its velocity in any place will be reciprocally, as the area of the section in that place.

Let

Let AB, CD be two sections at A and C , and let the quantity of the fluid $ABDC$, in a very small time, be translated into the part $abdc$ of the pipe, draw Pp, Qq perpendicular to AB, CD , or parallel to the motion of the fluid, then Pp, Qq being indefinitely small, will be the velocities of the fluid at P and Q , or the spaces described in that small part of time, then, because the pipe is always full, the quantity $ABDC = abdc$; take from both, the part $abDC$, which is common, and there remains $ABba = CDdc$, that is the section $APB \times Pp =$ section $CQD \times Qq$. FIG. 134.

Cor. 1. The quantity of motion of the fluid in the pipe AD , at any section CD , is equal to the motion of a cylinder of that fluid, whose base is CD , and length the same with the pipe from the beginning to that section, and velocity that of the fluid at CD ; or the quantity of motion at CD , is as the length of the pipe to that section CD .

For since the velocity in A is as $\frac{1}{APB}$, the motion of $ABba$ is $\frac{ABba}{APB}$, that is, as Pp , and the motion of the whole is as the sum of all the Pp , or the length of the pipe, without any regard to the diameter AB , the cylinder whose base is CQD , and height PQ is $= PQ \times CQD$, and its motion with velocity at C , is $= \frac{PQ \times CQD}{CQD} = PQ$ the length of the pipe, as before.

Cor. 2. If water is driven through the pipe PR by some given force acting at P , and the length of the pipe PR be given, the quantity of water discharged at R , in a second, or some given time, will be as the section at R .

For if the force is given, the motion generated in a given time will be given, and this motion, being as the quantity of water $\times$ velocity at R , therefore the quantity forced through R , will be reciprocally as the velocity, or directly as the section at R , by this Prop.

Cor. 3. The velocity and quantity of motion, is the same very near in crooked tubes as in straight ones, and in pipes divided into several branches, taking the section of all the branches as the section of one tube.

FIG.
135.

P R O P. XCV.

In any pipe whose section is ABCD, the stress or force to split any part of the pipe at B is equal to half the pressure of the fluid upon the plane BD, drawn perpendicular to the curve in B, and of the same length as that part of the pipe.

Let Ee be any small part of the surface, draw EO perp. to the curve Ee ; draw EN , en perp. to BO , and er perp. to EN ; and let OE represent the pressure of a particle of the fluid; then $EO \times Ee =$ pressure upon Ee . The force OE may be divided into the two ON , NE , of which ON tends only to split the tube at A , but that in direction NE is the force to separate the parts at B ; therefore $EN \times Ee$ is the stress at B ; but the triangles Eer , EON are similar, and $Ee \times EN = EO \times er$, or $EO \times Nn$; therefore the part of the pressure on Ee , in direction NE , from whence the stress at B arises, is $= EO \times Nn$, that is $=$ to the pressure upon the plane Nn ; consequently the stress arising from the pressure on BE is $=$ pressure on BN , and from the pressure on BA is $=$ pressure on BO ; and the stress at D by the pressure on AD is equal to the pressure on OD .

Also we suppose the same forces acting in the semi-circle BCD ; but these serve only to keep the forces acting upon BAD in equilibrio.

Cor. 1. The stress on any part of a pipe full of water, is as the diameter of the pipe, and the perpendicular height of the water above that place; and consequently the thickness of the metal ought to be in that ratio.

Cor. 2. In any concave surface, tank, or vessel, generated by revolving round an axis, and filled with a fluid, the stress as to splitting is equal to half the pressure upon the plane passing through its axis; and the stress on both sides at B and D equal to the whole pressure on that plane.

Cor. 3. Hence the internal pressure on any length of the pipe, is to the stress it suffers as to splitting :: as 2×3.1416 to 1.

Cor. 4. Hence it follows, that the stress, arising from any pressure, upon any part, to split it longitudinally, transversely, or in any

any direction, is equal to the pressure upon a plane, drawn perpendicular to the line of direction, thus the stress arising from the pressure on BE is = pressure on BN. FIG. 135.

Cor. 5. And if the pipe be flexible, it will, by the pressure, be put into a cylindrical form, or such that the section is a circle.

For if BD be greater than AC, there will be a greater pressure in direction OA than in direction OB, and the greater pressure will drive out the sides A and C, till AC become equal to BD, and ABCD be a circle; besides, a circle is more capacious than any other figure, and if a pipe be not flexible, yet the pressure of the fluid will always endeavour to put it into a circular figure.

Cor. 6. And if an elastic compressed fluid be inclosed in a vessel, flexible, and capable of being distended every way, it will form itself into a sphere, for the same reason.

P R O P. XCVI.

If a close flexible tube AB full of air, be immersed wholly or in part in the water CDEF, the force to split it, in any place O, is proportional to AO, its height from A. 136.

For the air compressed at A is in equilibrio with the external pressure of the water; at B and O the air is in the same compressed state as in A, but the external pressure at B, is less by the weight of the column of water AB, and at any place O, the external pressure is less than in A, by the weight of AO, therefore the internal pressure at O exceeds the external, by the weight of the column of water AO, and the stress at O is as that excess.

Cor. 1. The stress is greatest at the top BG, and at A is nothing.

Cor. 2. If the tube be inflexible, the stress will be according to the state of the compressed air within it; if the air within be the same as the external air at B, then the stress at O is as BO; if it be less than the external air, the increase of the stress will be also as BO, acting at the outside; if it be of very great density, the increase of stress at O is as AO.

FIG. For the pressure within is uniform; but without, it is as the
136. depth of the water.

P R O P. XCVII.

The quantity of a fluid flowing in any time through a hole in the bottom or side of a vessel, always kept full, is equal to a cylinder whose base is the area of the hole, and its length the space a body will describe in that time, with the velocity acquired by falling through half the height of the liquor above the hole.*

137. Let ADB be a vessel of water, B the hole, and take $BC = BD$ the height of the water, and let the cylinder of water BC fall by its weight through half DB , and it will by that fall acquire such a motion, as to pass through DB or BC uniformly in the same time, by Cor. 3. Prop. XIV.; but (by Prop. LXXXIII. and Cor. 2.) the water in the orifice B is pressed with the weight of a column of water, whose base is B and height BD or BC , therefore this pressure is equal to the weight of the cylinder BC , but equal forces generate equal motions; therefore the pressure at B will generate the same motion in the spouting water, as was generated by the weight of the cylinder of water BC ; therefore in the time of falling through half DB , a cylinder of water will spout out, whose length (or the space passed uniformly over) is BC or BD ; and in the same time repeated, another equal cylinder BC will flow out, and in a third part of time, a third, &c.; therefore the length of the whole cylinder run out, will be proportional to the time, and consequently the velocity of the water at B is uniform, therefore in any time the length of a cylinder of water spouting out, will be equal to the length described in that time, with the velocity acquired by falling through half DB .

Cor. 1. Hence in the time of falling through half DB , a quantity of the fluid runs out, equal to a cylinder whose base is the hole, and length the height of the fluid above the hole.

Cor. 2. The velocity in the hole B is uniform, and is equal to that a heavy body acquires by falling through half DB .

* Some philosophers make the velocity to be such as a body acquires by falling through the whole height of the fluid above the hole, and the same agrees with experiments nearly, C. H.

Cor.

Cor. 3. But at a small distance without the hole, the stream is FIG. contracted into a less diameter, and its velocity increased; so that if 138. a fluid spout through a hole made in a thin plate of metal, it acquires a velocity nearly equal to that which a heavy body acquires by falling the whole height of the stagnant fluid above the hole.

For since the fluid converges from all sides towards the centre of the hole BF , and all the particles endeavouring to go on in right lines, but meeting one another at the hole, they will compress one another; and this compression being every where directed to the axis of the spouting cylinder, the parts of the fluid will endeavour to converge to a point, by which means the fluid will form itself into a sort of a conical figure, at some distance from the hole, as $BEGF$. By this lateral compression, the particles near the sides of the hole are made to describe curve lines, as HE , KG ; and by the direct compression, the fluid from the hole is accelerated outwards at EG ; and thus the stream will be contracted at E , in the ratio of about $\sqrt{2}$ to 1, and the velocity increased in the same ratio.

It must be observed, however, that the particles of the fluid do not always move right forward, but near the edge of the hole, often in spiral lines; for nobody can instantly change its course in an angle, but must do it gradually, in some curve line.

Cor. 4. The fluid at the same depth spouts out nearly with the same velocity, upwards, downwards, sideways, or in any direction; and if it spout vertically, ascends nearly to the upper surface of the fluid.

Cor. 5. The velocities of the fluid, spouting out at different depths, are as the square roots of the depths.

For the velocities of falling bodies are as the square roots of the heights.

Cor. 6. Hence if $s = 16\frac{1}{2}$ feet, $D =$ depth of the vessel to the centre of the hole, $F =$ area of the hole, all in feet, $t =$ time in seconds; then the quantity of water running out in the time t , by this Prop. will be $tF\sqrt{2D}$ feet, or $6.128tF\sqrt{2D}$ ale gallons.

SCHOL.

There are several irregularities in spouting fluids, arising from the resistance of the air, the friction of the tubes, the big-
ness

FIG. 138. nefs and shape of the vessel, or of the hole, &c. A fluid spouts farthest through a thin plate. If it spout through a tube instead of a plate, it will not spout so far, partly from the friction, and partly because the stream does not converge so much, or grow smaller. A jet d'eau spouts higher, if its direction be a little inclined from the perpendicular; because the water in the uppermost part of the jet falls down upon the lower part and stops its motion. We find, by experience, a fluid never spouts to the full height of the water above the hole; but in small heights falls short of it, by spaces, which are as the squares of the heights of the fluid; and all bodies projected upwards, fall short of those projected in vacuo, by spaces which are in the same ratio; from the resistance of the air.

By experiments, if the height of a reservoir be 5 feet, a jet will fall an inch short, and the defect will be as the square of the height of the reservoir; but small jets fail more than in that proportion, from the greater resistance of the air.

P R O P. XCVIII.

139. *If a notch or slit, $fgbi$, in form of a parallelogram, be cut out of the side of a vessel full of water, ADE , the quantity of water flowing out of it, will be $\frac{2}{3}$ the quantity flowing out of an equal orifice, placed at the whole depth gi , or at the base bi , in the same time; the vessel being supposed to be always kept full.*

For draw the parabola gob , whose axis is gi , and base bi , and ordinate ro ; then since the velocity of the fluid at any place r , is as $\sqrt{gr}$, (by Cor. 5. of the last Prop.) that is (by the nature of the parabola) as the ordinate ro ; therefore ro will represent the quantity discharged at the depth or section rn ; also bi will represent the quantity discharged at the depth or base bi ; consequently the sum of all the ordinates ro , or the area of the parabola, will represent the quantity discharged at all the places rn ; and the sum of all the lines bi or rn , or the area of the parallelogram $fgbi$, will represent the quantity discharged by all the sections rn , placed as low as the base bi ; but the parabola is to the parallelogram as $\frac{2}{3}$ to 1.

Cor.

Cor. 1. Let $s = 16\frac{1}{12}$ feet; $D = gi$, the depth of the slit; $F = \text{FIG.}$ area of the slit, $fbig$; then the quantity flowing out in any time or 139. number of seconds t , is $= \frac{2}{3} t F \sqrt{2Ds}$.

This follows from Cor. 6. of the last Prop.

Cor. 2. The quantity of fluid discharged through the hole $rnbi$, is to the quantity which would be discharged through an equal hole placed as low as bi , as the parabolic segment $robi$ to the rectangle $rnbi$.

This appears from the reasoning in this proposition.

S E C T. X.

The Resistance of Fluids, their Forces and Actions upon Bodies, the Motion of Ships, and Position of their Sails.

P R O P. XCIX.

*A body descending in a fluid, adds a quantity of weight to the fluid,
equal to the resistance it meets with in falling.*

FIG.

For the resistance is equal to the gravity lost by the body; and because action and re-action are equal and contrary, the gravity lost by the body, is equal to that gained by the fluid, therefore the resistance is equal to the gravity gained by the fluid.

Cor. 1. If a body ascends in a fluid, it diminishes the gravity of the fluid, by a quantity equal to the resistance it meets with.

Cor. 2. This increase of weight arising from the resistance, is over and above the additional weight mentioned in Cor. 1. Prop. LXXXV.

Cor. 3. If a heterogeneous body descend in a fluid, it will endeavour to move with its centre of gravity foremost, leaving the centre of gravity of as much of the fluid behind.

For the side towards the centre of gravity, contains more matter, and will more easily make its way through the fluid, and be less retarded in it.

P R O P.

PROP. C.

If any body moves through a fluid, the resistance it meets with is as the square of its velocity.

For the resistance is as the number of particles struck, and the velocity with which one particle is struck; but the number of particles of the fluid which are struck in any time, is as the velocity of the body, therefore the whole resistance is as the square of the velocity.

Cor. 1. The resistances of similar bodies moving in any fluids, are as the squares of their diameters, the squares of their velocities, and the densities of the fluids.

For the number of particles struck with the same velocity, are as the squares of the diameters, and the densities of the fluids.

Cor. 2. If two bodies A, B, with the same velocity, meet with the resistances p and q, their velocities will be as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}$, when they meet with equal resistances.

For let b be the common velocity, then $p : bb :: q : \frac{bbq}{p}$, and $b\sqrt{\frac{q}{p}} =$ velocity of A to have the resistance q , and since $b =$ velocity of B to have the same resistance q , therefore vel. $A :$ vel. $B :: b\sqrt{\frac{q}{p}} : b :: \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} : \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}$.

PROP. CL.

The centre of resistance of any plane moving directly forward in a fluid, is the same as the centre of gravity.

The centre of resistance is that point, to which if a contrary force be applied, it shall just sustain the resistance.

Now the resistance is equal upon all equal parts of the plane, and therefore the resistance acts upon the plane after the same manner,

U

manner,

P I G. manner, and with the same forces as gravity does, therefore the centre of both the resistance and gravity must be the same.

Cor. 1. In any body moving through a fluid, the line of direction of its motion will pass through the centre of resistance, and centre of gravity of the body.

For if it do not, the forces arising from the weight and resistance, will not balance one another, which will cause the body to librate or oscillate in the fluid, till by degrees the situation of these two centres will fall into the line of their motion.

Cor. 2. And for the same reason, if a globe, moving in a fluid, oscillates or turns round its axis, that side which in oscillating moving against the fluid, suffers a greater force or resistance, and therefore the body is driven from that part, and made to recede from that side, and deflect to the other side, and perhaps describe a curve line in the fluid.

P R O P. CII.

140. If a non-tenacious fluid, such as the wind, &c. move against the sail SA or any plane surface, in direction WS , it shall urge it in a direction WA perpendicular to that surface, with a force, which is as the square of the velocity, the square of the sine of the angle of incidence, the magnitude of the sail, and the density of the fluid.

Draw WA , AC perpendicular to SA , SW , then the force of the fluid upon SA , is as the force of one particle, and the number of them falling on SA .

But (by *Cor. 1. Prop. IX.*) the force of one particle is as its velocity $\times$ S . incidence WSA .

And the number of them (supposing the density to be given) is as their velocity $\times$ CA , or (supposing the sail SA given) as the velocity $\times$ $S.WSA$.

Therefore the force of the fluid upon the sail SA , is as the square of the velocity, and the square of the sine of WSA .

Increase the density of the fluid, and the magnitude of the sail, in any ratio; and it is evident the force of the fluid against the sail will be increased in the same ratio.

Cor.

Cor. 1. And if a thin body move in a fluid at rest, the same law holds in respect of the resistance it meets with in the direction perpendicular to its surface. FIG. 140.

Cor. 2. If a fluid with a given velocity move in direction WS , against the sail SA , its force to move the sail in any given direction SB , is as the square of the $S.WSA \times$ by the $S.ASB$; and if WSB be a right angle, as $S.WSA \times \frac{1}{2}$ sine of twice WSA . 141.

For let SD , DB be perpendicular to SA , SB , then SD is the whole force acting at S , and SB the force in direction SB , and SB is as $S.SDB$ or ASB , and if ASB be the comp. of WSA , then $S.WSA \times \cos. WSA$ is as S . twice WSA , by trigonometry.

Cor. 3. The force of a fluid in direction WS , to move the sail or body SA in the same direction WS , is (*ceteris paribus*) as the cube of the sine of incidence WSA .

For then WSB will be one continued straight line.

Cor. 4. But the force of a given stream of a fluid, against any sail SA , to move it perpendicular to its surface, is simply as the S . angle of incidence; but to move it in the same direction with itself, as the square of the S incidence; all things else remaining the same.

This follows from Cor. 1. Prop. IX. and Cor. 2, of this.

SCHOL. I.

If the angle WSB be given, the fluid will have the greatest force possible against the sail, to move it in direction SB , when its position is such, that the sine of the diff. of the angles $WSA - ASB$, may be $\frac{1}{2}$ the sine of the sum WSB .

SCHOL. II.

If the fluid be tenacious it will urge the body in the same direction with itself, and with a force which is as the sine of incidence; or universally, as the sine of incidence, the square of the velocity, the magnitude of the sail, and density of the fluid. 140.

For by reason of the tenacity of the fluid, the sail is acted on by both the forces WA , AS , which are equivalent to WS .

P R O P. CIII.

FIG. If a very thin and light body SA , plain on both sides, be placed in
 142. a very dense fluid, which moves in direction WS , and the body can make little or no way through the fluid, but only in the direction of its length SA , and if the body be obliged to move parallel to itself in a given direction SD , I say the body will be so moved in the fluid, that its absolute velocity will be $\frac{S.WSA}{S.ASD} \times$ velocity of the fluid.

Draw DT parallel to AS , and produce WS to T , then whilst a part of the fluid moves from S to T , the body will be moved into the line TD , and since SD is the direction of its motion, the point S will be found in D , and therefore the velocities of the fluid, and of the body, will be as ST to SD , that is, as $S.TDS$ or DSA , to $S.STD$ or WSA .

Cor. 1. If WS the direction of the fluid, is perpendicular to SD the direction of the body, then the velocity of the body SA will be $\tan. WSA \times$ velocity of the fluid.

For $\frac{S.WSA}{S.ASD} = \frac{S.WSA}{\cos. WSA} = \tan. WSA$, radius being $= 1$.

Cor. 2. And hence if the body SA continually turn round an axis parallel to WS , then the velocity of SA in direction perpendicular to WS , will be as the $\tan. WSA \times$ velocity of the fluid.

For SA in this case, will always have the same position to the direction of the fluid, as before.

143. Cor. 3. If a very thin body SA be obliged to move parallel to itself, through a very dense fluid at rest, and if it be drawn with a given velocity in direction always parallel to SW , its absolute velocity in the fluid will be reciprocally as the $\cos. WSA$, and in direction SA .

Draw AC perpendicular to SW , then by reason of the density and resistance of the fluid, the body will not be able to move laterally, but only in direction SA , but the velocities of the point S in directions SW , SA , are as SC to SA , or as $\cos. CSA$ to rad. therefore vel. in direction $SA = \frac{\text{rad.}}{\cos. CSA} \times \text{vel. in direction } SW$.

P R O P. CIV.

If a plane surface SA , moving parallel to itself, with velocity and direction SD , be acted upon by a fluid moving with velocity and direction WS ; and if WF be drawn parallel and equal to SD , and FS drawn; I say the fluid acts upon the plane in the angle FSA with the relative velocity FS . FIG. 144.

For complete the parallelogram $WSDF$, and let the body be at rest, and the fluid move with the contrary motion DS or FW , and then their relative motions will be the same as before, and the fluid will have the two motions FW , FD in respect of the body SA at rest; therefore (by Cor. 1. Prop. VII.) the motion compounded out of these is FS , which is the absolute motion of the fluid, supposing the body at rest, or the relative motion of it in respect of the moving body, and therefore acts on it in the angle FSA .

Cor. If F falls in the line SA , then the fluid acts not at all upon the body; and if it fall on the contrary side of it, then the fluid acts on the contrary side of the body SA .

S C H O L.

The fluid will move the surface in direction SD with the greatest force, when it has such a position, that the sine of the diff. of the angles, $FSA - ASD$, may be $\frac{1}{2}$ the sine of the angle FSD .

And when the angle WSA is given, the fluid will have the greatest force upon the sail SA , to move it in direction SD , when the S . angle ASD is equal to $\frac{WS}{WF} \times \frac{1}{2}$ the S . of WSA .

P R O P. CV.

Let SA be the sail of a ship, SD the position of her keel, SK , DK perpendicular to SA , SD ; and if DE , DS be as the resistances the ship has a-head and aside, with equal velocities, and if DC is a mean 145.

FIG. 145. *a mean proportional between DE and DK, then SC will be the way of the ship nearly.*

For let SK perpendicular to SA represent the force of the wind upon the sail; the force SK is resolved into the forces SD, DK ; SD is the direct force, and DK the force producing her lee-way; by Prop C. her resistance ahead with velocity SD : resist. ahead with vel. $DE :: SD^2 : DE^2$, and resist. ahead with vel. DE : ref. aside with vel. $DE :: DE : SD$, and ref. aside with vel. DE : ref. aside with vel. $DC :: DE^2 : DC^2$.

Therefore ex æquo. Ref. ahead with vel. SD : ref. aside with vel. $DC :: SD^2 \times DE^2 : DE^2 \times SD \times DC :: SD \times DE : DC^2$.

But the resistances are as the forces producing them, therefore $SD : DK :: SD \times DD : DC^2 = DE \times DK$.

Cor. 1. Let r = ship's resistance ahead, R = ship's resistance aside, with the same velocity; then $R : r :: \text{radius} \times \cotan. ASD : \text{tan. square of } DSC, \text{ the lee way.}$

For let $\text{rad.} = 1. \tan. DSK = t$; then $1 : t :: SD : DK = t \times SD$, and $SD : DC$ or $\sqrt{DE \times DK}$ or $\sqrt{t \times SD \times DE} :: 1 : \text{tan. } DSC = \sqrt{\frac{1 \times DE}{SD}}$.

Cor. 2. Hence the tangent of the lee-way, in the same ship, is as the square root of the cotangent of the angle ASD , which the sail makes with the keel; therefore if the lee-way be known for any position of the sail, it will be known for all.

SCHOL.

The lee-way of a ship is generally something more than is here assigned, because her hull and rigging will make her drive a little to leeward, directly from the wind.

PROP. CVI.

146. *If the wind with a given velocity, in direction WS , fall on the sail SA of a ship, making little or no lee-way, it will urge the ship in direction of the keel SD , with a force, which is as $S.WSA^2 \times S.ASD$.*

Draw

Draw SC perpendicular to SA , and CD to SD ; and (by Prop. FIG. CII.) the force acting upon the sail in direction SC , is as the 144. square of the sine WSA ; but the forces in directions SC and SD are as SC to SD , or as radius 1 to the sine of SCD or ASD ; therefore the force in direction $SD = S.ASD \times$ force in direction $SC = S.ASD \times S.^2 WSA$.

Cor. 1. The force acting in direction DC perpendicular to the keel is as $S.WSA^2 \times \cos. ASD$.

Cor. 2. The force in direction SD will be universally as $S.WSA^2$ 146. $\times S.ASD$, and the square of the velocity of the wind, and magnitude of the sail.

Cor. 3. The velocity of the ship in direction SD , is as $S.WSA \times \sqrt{S.ASD} \times$ velocity of the wind.

For the square of the velocity of the ship in any direction, is as the resistance in the water, or (its equal) the force of the wind upon the sail in that direction; that is (by Cor. 2.) as $S.WSA^2 \times S.ASD$, and the square of the velocity of the wind; the density and sail being given.

Cor. 4. Let the angle WSA be given; and if SDC be a semicircle described on any given line SC ; then the force in any direction SD of the keel is as the cord SD , and the velocity as $\sqrt{SD}$.

Cor. 5. The velocity of the ship to windward, is as $S.WSA \times \sqrt{S.ASD} \times \cos. WSD$.

For draw SP perpendicular to WS , and DG to SP , and the velocities in directions SD , GD are as SD to GD , or as radius 1 to $S.DSG$: therefore the velocity in $GD = S.DSG \times S.WSA \times \sqrt{S.ASD}$.

Cor. 6. The force of the sail SA , to turn the ship about, is as $S.WSA^2 \times \cos. ASD$.

This appears by Cor. 1. supposing the sail placed in the head of the ship.

PROP.

PROP. CVII.

If a stream of any fluid, as water, flows directly against any plane surface, its force against that plane is equal to the weight of a column of the fluid, whose base is the section of the stream, and its length twice the height descended by a falling body, to acquire the velocity of the fluid.

Let $s = 16\frac{1}{2}$ feet, the height descended by a falling body in one second.

$v =$ velocity of the fluid, or the space it describes in one second.

$B =$ base of the cylinder or column of water:

Then $2s =$ velocity generated by gravity in falling through s ; therefore (by Cor. 1. Prop. XIV.)

$4ss : s :: vv : \frac{vv}{4s} =$ height fallen to gain the velocity v ; and $\frac{vv}{2s} =$ twice that height; also $\frac{vv}{2s} B =$ a cylinder of twice that height.

Now the motion which the cylinder's weight will generate in 1 second, is $2s \times \frac{vv}{2s} B$; or vvB ; the motion being as the body $\times$ by the velocity; and the force of the fluid against the plane is equal to the resistance of the plane; and the motion destroyed in 1 second by the resistance of the plane, is $v \times Bv$ or vvB , which was also the motion generated by the weight of the cylinder $\frac{vv}{2s} B$, in the same time; but equal forces in the same time generate or destroy equal motions; therefore the weight of the cylinder $\frac{vv}{2s} B =$ force of the fluid against the plane.

Cor. 1. The force of a stream of water against any plane is equal to the weight of a column of water whose base is the section of the stream, and height $\frac{vv}{2s}$; or the height of the water, if it flow through a hole at the bottom of a reservoir.

It follows from this Prop. and Prop. XCVII. Cor. 2.

Cor. 2. Moreover if any part of the water lie upon the plane, the force will be augmented by the weight of so much water.

Cor.

Cor. 3. The forces of different streams of water against any plane FIG. are as their sections and the squares of the velocities.

Cor. 4. If the plane be also in motion, the relative velocity of the water against the plane must be taken instead of the absolute velocity.

SCHOL.

A cubic foot of water contains 6.128 ale gallons, and weighs $62\frac{1}{2}$ lb. aver. The density of water to that of air at a mean, is as 850 to 1. Sir Isaac Newton found the resistance of water to that of air (by the oscillations of a pendulum) to be as 446 to 1, or between 446 and 478 to 1, or at a mean as 460 to 1. See Schol. Prop. XXXI, Book II. Principia.

LEMMA.

If the quadrant EDA revolve about the radius CA, and describe an 147. hemisphere, and from all the points of its surface, as D, d, perpendiculars DB, db, be let fall upon the base EC; I say the sum of all the perpendiculars BD, in the surface EDA, is to the sum of as many radii CD, as 1 to 2.

For take Dd infinitely small, and complete the square CAHN, and draw CH, also draw DFGR, dfr parallel to EC. By the similar triangles CDF, Dnd, $DF \times Dd = CD \times nd$, also $BD = CF = FG$.

The surface of the spherical annulus DdfF is $3.1416 \times 2DF \times Dd$ or $3.1416 \times 2CD \times nd$, that is (because $3.1416 \times 2CD$ is given) as nd or Ff ; and the sum of all the BD's in the annulus is as $BD \times$ by its surface, that is, as $BD \times Ff$, or $FC \times Ff$; therefore the sum of all the BD's in the annulus is expressed by the area $FfgG$; and for the same reason, the sum of as many radii, by $FfrR$; therefore the sum of all the BD's in the hemisphere: is to the sum of as many radii:: as the sum of all the $FfgG$: to the sum of all the $FfrR$:: that is, as the triangle CAH: to the square CAHN, or as 1 to 2.

PROP CVIII.

If a cylinder moves uniformly forward, in direction of its axis, in 148. a fluid of the same density, it meets with a resistance equal to the force which can generate its motion, in the time it describes twice its length.

X

Let

- FIG. Let AB be the cylinder moving from A towards G , and take
 148. $FBCG$ equal to $ASBF$; and let us first suppose that the cylinder AB , whilst it moves forward, pushes against the several parts of the fluid, and drives them successively before it, in direction of its axis, from the several places through which it passes; so that in equal times it moves equal quantities of the fluid, and communicates to them the same velocity that it moves with; it is evident that the cylinder, after it has moved uniformly forward, the length of its axis, has removed the cylinder of the fluid $FBCG$ equal to itself $ASBF$, and has communicated a motion to it equal to its own. And since action and re-action are equal, the force that uniformly generated this motion is equal to the uniform resistance the cylinder suffered in the mean time; and therefore the resistance is equal to the force by which its own motion can be generated, in the time it describes its length.

- All this is true, upon supposition that every particle of the fluid is driven directly forward with the same velocity the cylinder has: but since, in reality, the motion generated in the fluid is not directly forward, but (by Prop. LXXX.) diverges on all sides, and in all manner of directions CD , Cd , &c.;
 147. therefore, [if the quadrant AE be divided into an infinite number of equal parts, Dd , and to all the points D , d , the radii
 148. CD , Cd , &c. be drawn, representing the motions of the particles in all directions; and from any one D , the perp. DB be drawn on EC ; then the motion CD ($= CA$) is resolved into the two motions CB , BD ; of which CB does not affect the cylinder; and the direct motion of the particle D is only BD , which is less than CD ; therefore the force to generate this motion, and consequently the resistance of a particle at D (equal to this force) must be less than before in proportion of CD to BD ; therefore the former resistance, when all the particles are driven directly forward, to the resistance when they diverge on all sides, is as the sum of all the radii CD , drawn to every point of the surface of a sphere, to the sum of all the corresponding sines BD ; that is (by the Lem.) as 2 to 1. Therefore the resistance the cylinder meets with now is but half the former resistance; consequently, since the force to generate any motion is reciprocally as the time, the resistance will be equal to the force that can generate its motion, in the time that it describes twice its length.

Cor. 1. If a cylinder moves in direction of its axis, in a fluid of the same density, and with the velocity acquired by falling in vacuo, from a height equal to its length, it meets with a resistance equal to its weight.

For the force that generates its motion, in the time of its moving twice its length (or of falling through once its length) is its gravity.

Cor. 2. If a cylinder moves uniformly forward in any fluid, its resistance is to the force by which its whole motion may be generated in the time of moving twice its length, as the density of the fluid to the density of the cylinder.

For if the density of the fluid be increased in any ratio, the resistance will be increased in the same ratio.

Cor. 3. The resistance of a cylinder moving in any fluid is equal to the weight of a cylinder of that fluid, of the same base, and its length equal to the height a body falls in vacuo, to acquire its velocity. By Cor. 1.

Cor. 4. Let $s = 16\frac{1}{2}$ feet, $B =$ base of the cylinder, $v =$ its velocity, or the space described in 1 second; then its resistance is $=$ weight of the cylinder $\frac{v^2}{4s} B$, of the fluid.

SCHOL.

If the cylinder move in a fluid inclosed in a vessel, instead of the absolute velocity, the relative velocity in the fluid must be taken, in order to find the resistance. And, besides, if the vessel be narrow, the resistance will be increased more or less, because the fluid, being confined by the vessel, cannot then diverge in all directions; and if it be so confined that it cannot diverge at all, but is obliged to move directly forward, the resistance then will be double; which is the greatest it can possibly have, or the utmost limit of its resistance. Also, by comparing the last Cor. with Cor. 1. Prop. CVII. it appears that the force of a cylinder of water against a plane is double the resistance an equal cylinder would meet with, moving in water with the same velocity. And this will not appear strange, when we consider, that in the first case the whole motion of the water is destroyed by the resistance of the plane; but in the latter case, the water diverges every way from the moving cylinder,

FIG. linder, and does not partake of its direct motion. But if the
 148. water was not suffered to diverge, but was driven directly forward with the motion of the cylinder, the resistance would then be doubled, and these two cases would become the same.

L E M M A.

147. If the quadrant ADE revolve about the radius CA, and generate an hemisphere, and on every point B of the base, perpendiculars BD be drawn; I say the sum of all the BD^2 on the base, is to the sum of as many CD^2 , as 1 to 2.

Let $CD = r$, $CB = x$, $BD = y$, $c = 3.1416$, then $2cx =$ circumference of BC. Then,

The sum of all the rr : to sum of all the yy , in the annulus Bb , is as $2cx \times rr$: to $2cx \times yy$: rrx : yyx .

And sum of all the rr : sum of all the yy , in the hemisphere, is as sum $rrx \times Bb$: sum $yyx \times Bb$, on the base;

Or as sum of $rrx \times Bb$: sum of $rr - xx \times x \times Bb$,

Or as the sum of $rrx \times Bb$: sum $rrx \times Bb - \text{sum } x^3 \times Bb$, in the base.

† But the sum of all the $x \times Bb = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4, \&c. \text{ to } r \times 1 = \frac{1}{2} rr$.

† And sum of all the $rrx \times Bb = \frac{1}{2} r^4$. putting $Bb = 1$.

† Also the sum of all the $x^3 \times Bb = 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3, \&c. \text{ to } r^3 \times 1 = \frac{1}{4} r^4$.

Therefore the sum of all the rr : sum of all the yy , in the hemisphere, is as $\frac{1}{2} r^4$: $\frac{1}{2} r^4 - \frac{1}{4} r^4$, or as $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$, that is, as 2 to 1.

P R O P. CIX.

If a globe move uniformly forward in a compressed infinite fluid, its resistance is to the force by which its whole motion may be destroyed or generated, in the time of describing $\frac{2}{3}$ parts of its diameter, as the density of the fluid to the density of the globe, very nearly.

149. Let the globe move in the direction CA; draw the tangent DH, and BDG parallel to CA, and GH perp. to DH, and let GD

† See Ward's Math. Guide. Part V.

GD be the force of a particle of the fluid against the base B , FIG. in direction GD ; then GH will be the force acting against D , 149. in direction DC , and this force is to the force in direction GD as DC to DB ; whence the force against B , is to the force against D , in direction GD , in a ratio compounded of GD to GH , and DC to DB , that is, as DC^2 to DB^2 ; therefore the force of all the particles of the fluid, against the base, is to their force against the convex surface; as the sum of all the DC^2 ; to the sum of all the DB^2 on the base; that is, (by the Lem.) as 2 to 1; therefore the resistance of the surface of the sphere, is but half the resistance of the base, or of a cylinder of the same diameter.

Now the globe is to the circumscribing cylinder as 2 to 3, and half of that force (which can destroy all the motion of this cylinder, whilst it describes 2 diameters) will destroy all its motion whilst it describes 4 diameters, and therefore the same force that destroys the cylinder's motion, in the time of moving 4 diameters, will destroy the globe's motion whilst it moves $\frac{2}{3}$ of this length, or $\frac{2}{3}$ of its own diameter; but (by Cor. 2. Prop. CVIII.) half the resistance of the cylinder, that is, the resistance of the globe, is to this force, as the density of the fluid, to the density of the cylinder or globe.

Cor. 1. The resistance of a sphere is but half the resistance of a cylinder of the same diameter.

Cor. 2. The resistance of a globe moving in any fluid, is equal to the weight of a cylinder of that fluid, of the same diameter, and its length equal to half the height, through which a body falls in vacuo, to acquire the velocity of the globe. By Cor. 3. Prop. CVIII.

Therefore if $s = 16\frac{1}{2}$ feet, $v =$ velocity of a globe, or the space it moves in 1 second, $D =$ its diameter, then its resistance is equal to the weight of a cylinder of the fluid of the same diameter D , and its length $\frac{sv^2}{8s}$, and if $v = 4\sqrt{\frac{Ds}{3}}$, its resistance is equal to the weight of an equal globe of the fluid.

Cor. 3. The greatest velocity a globe can obtain, by descending in a fluid, is that which it would acquire by falling in vacuo, through a space that is to $\frac{4}{3}$ the diameter, as the difference between the density of the globe and the density of the fluid, is to the density of the fluid.

For let G , F be the densities of the globe and the fluid, D the diameter of the globe; then since a globe is equal to a cylinder

FIG. cylinder whose height is $\frac{1}{3}D$, therefore the weight of the
 149. globe = weight of a cylinder of the fluid, whose length is $\frac{1}{3}D$
 $\times \frac{G}{F}$, and (by Prop. LXXXV.) the weight of the globe
 in the fluid is = weight of a cylinder of the fluid, whose length
 is $\frac{1}{3}D \times \frac{G-F}{F}$. But (by Cor. 2.) the resistance of the globe
 moving with the velocity acquired by falling in vacuo, through
 the height $\frac{1}{3}D \times \frac{G-F}{F}$ is = weight of a cylinder of the fluid
 whose length is $\frac{1}{3}D \times \frac{G-F}{F}$; therefore the weight of the
 globe in the fluid is equal to the resistance, and consequently
 it cannot accelerate the globe.

And hence if $v = 4\sqrt{\frac{G-F}{3F}}Ds$, the resistance is equal to the
 weight of the globe in the fluid.

Cor. 4. Two equal and homogeneous globes moving in a resisting
 medium, will, in times that are reciprocally as the first velocities,
 describe equal spaces, and lose a given part of their motions.

For the motion lost in describing two very small equal
 spaces, is as the resistance and time, that is, (because the space
 is given) as the square of the velocity directly and the velocity
 inversely, that is directly as the velocity; and so in describ-
 ing any spaces, the motion lost will always be as the first mo-
 tion, and the time reciprocally as the first velocity.

Cor. 5. Two homogeneous globes, moving with equal velocities in
 a fluid, lose equal velocities in describing spaces proportional to their
 diameters.

For the velocity lost in each, by describing two small spaces
 proportional to the diameters, will be as the resistance and time
 directly, and the body inversely; that is (because the resistance
 is as the square of the diameter, and the time as the diameter),
 as the cube of the diameter directly, and the cube of the dia-
 meter inversely, therefore the velocity lost is equal in both;
 and the like for any succeeding correspondent parts.

SCHOL.

The resistance of fluids is of three kinds. 1. *Tenacity* or
cobesion of the parts of the liquor, which is the force by which
 the particles of the fluid stick together, and causes them not to
 separate easily, and this is the same for all velocities. 2. *Fric-*

tion

tion or attrition, where the parts of the fluid do not slide freely by one another, and this is as the velocity, 3. The *density* or *quantity of matter* to be removed, and this is as the square of the velocity; the two former kinds are very small in all fluids, except viscid and glutinous ones, and upon this account the foregoing theory regards only the last kind, and therefore the resistance there described is the very least the body can possibly meet with; but since all fluids have some small degree of friction and tenacity, they will increase the resistance a little; also when the velocity is very great, the compression of the fluid ought to be so too, to cause the fluid to return with equal ease behind the moving body, and when this does not happen, the resistance is increased upon that account. For a fluid yielding to a projectile does not recede ad infinitum; but with a circular motion comes round to the places which the body leaves. Likewise when bodies move in a stagnant fluid near the surface, the fluid cannot dilate itself upwards, to give way to the moving body, and this will considerably increase the resistance; also if a body moves in a fluid inclosed in a vessel, the relative velocity of the body in the fluid must be esteemed its true velocity, but the resistance it meets with will be increased, because the fluid has not liberty to diverge every way, and the straiter the vessel, the more is the resistance increased, and it may by this means be increased till it be near double, beyond which it cannot go. For all that a body can do is to drive the fluid wholly before it, without any diverging; so that the least resistance a globe can have is the same as is laid down in Cor. 2. of the last Prop. and the greatest can never exceed the double of it, so that it will always be between these limits. If the fluid in which the body moves be elastic and spring from the body, the resistance will be greater than if it was non-elastic; but these irregularities are not considered in the foregoing theory.

There are some bodies that may be reckoned in a middle state between solids and fluids, and in some of these the tenacity and friction is so great, as in many cases far to exceed the resistance arising from their density only. For example, it appears by experiments, that if a hard body be suspended at several heights, and be let fall upon any soft substance, such as tallow, soft clay, wax, snow, &c. it will make pits or impressions, which are as the heights fallen, that is, as the squares of the velocities; likewise nails give way to a hammer in a ratio which is as the square of the velocity. Comparing this with Schol. Prop. XIV. it appears that in these cases, the

resistance

FIG. resistance is the same for all velocities, which argues a very
149. great degree of tenacity. Again, bodies projected into earth
mixt with stones, the impressions are found to be between the
simple and duplicate ratio of the velocities, therefore in this
case, the resistance is in a less ratio than the simple ratio of the
velocity, and therefore these sorts of bodies have both friction
and tenacity: and in different sorts of bodies there is great
difference and variety in their nature and constitution.

Tenacity may be compared to the force of gravity, which is
always the same, with this difference, that tenacity acts always
contrary to the motion of the body, and when the body is at
rest it is nothing. *Attrition* may be compared to the motion
of a body striking always a given number of particles of matter
in a given time, with any velocity, and therefore the resistance
of such a body will be as the velocity.

S E C T.

S E C T. XI.

Methods of communicating, directing, and regulating any motion in the practice of mechanics.

P R O P. CX.

To communicate motion from one body to another, or from one place to another.

1. The easiest and simplest method of communicating motion from one thing *A* to another *B*, is by a rope or a lever *AB*, reaching between the two places, or things. FIG. 150.
2. Motion is communicated from one wheel or roller *DC* to another *AB*, by a perpetual or endless rope *ABCD*, going once or oftener about them : or if you will, by a chain. That the rope slip not, make knots on it, and channels in the wheels, if necessary. 151.
3. Motion is communicated from one wheel *ABC*, to another *DEF*; by the teeth in the two wheels working together. Or thus, where the axis of *A* having but one tooth ; one revolution of it answers to the motion of only one tooth in *B*. 152. 153.
4. Motion is communicated from one place to another, by one or more beams or levers, *MB*, *BC*, *CE*, *EF*, *FH*, &c. moveable about the centers *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, *E*, *F*, *G* ; of which *A*, *D*, *G*, &c. are fixt. Here if the point *M* be moved, the point *H* will be moved ; for *MB*, *BC*, *CE*, &c. all move one another to the last, *FH*. 154.
5. Motion may also be communicated from *A* to *B*, by a pinion at *A*, and a straight ruler with teeth, which bite one another. 155.

P R O P. CXI.

By help of one uniform motion given ; to produce another, either uniform or accelerated.

FIG. 1. A uniform motion is produced in the wheel DEF ; by
 152. moving the wheel ABC uniformly, which carries it. Also a uniform motion is produced in wheels moving by cords, as AB ,
 151. CD : for one being moved uniformly, moves the other also uniformly.

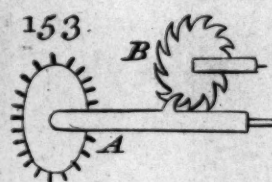
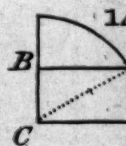
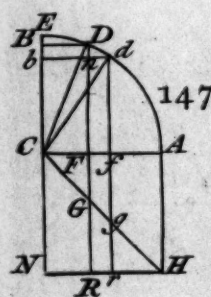
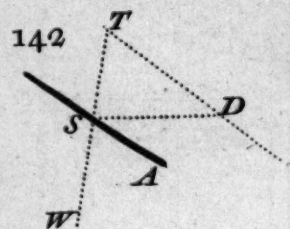
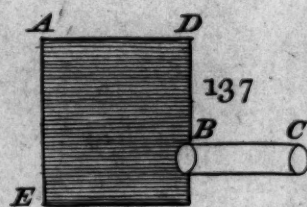
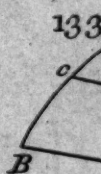
156. 2. The wheel BF may be made to move uniformly about the center C , by the motion of the wheel BD . On the base BF with the generating circle BD , describe the epicycloidal tooth BE . Then the point B of the wheel AB , moving uniformly about the center A , and passing over the tooth BE : will move the wheel BF uniformly, about C . Here the acting tooth AB ought to be made crooked as Ab , that it touch not the end E , of the tooth BE , if it act on the concave side. Or else the plane of the wheel BD must be raised above the plane of BF , and a tooth made at B to bend down perpendicular to the plane of the wheel, as AG , to catch the tooth BE .

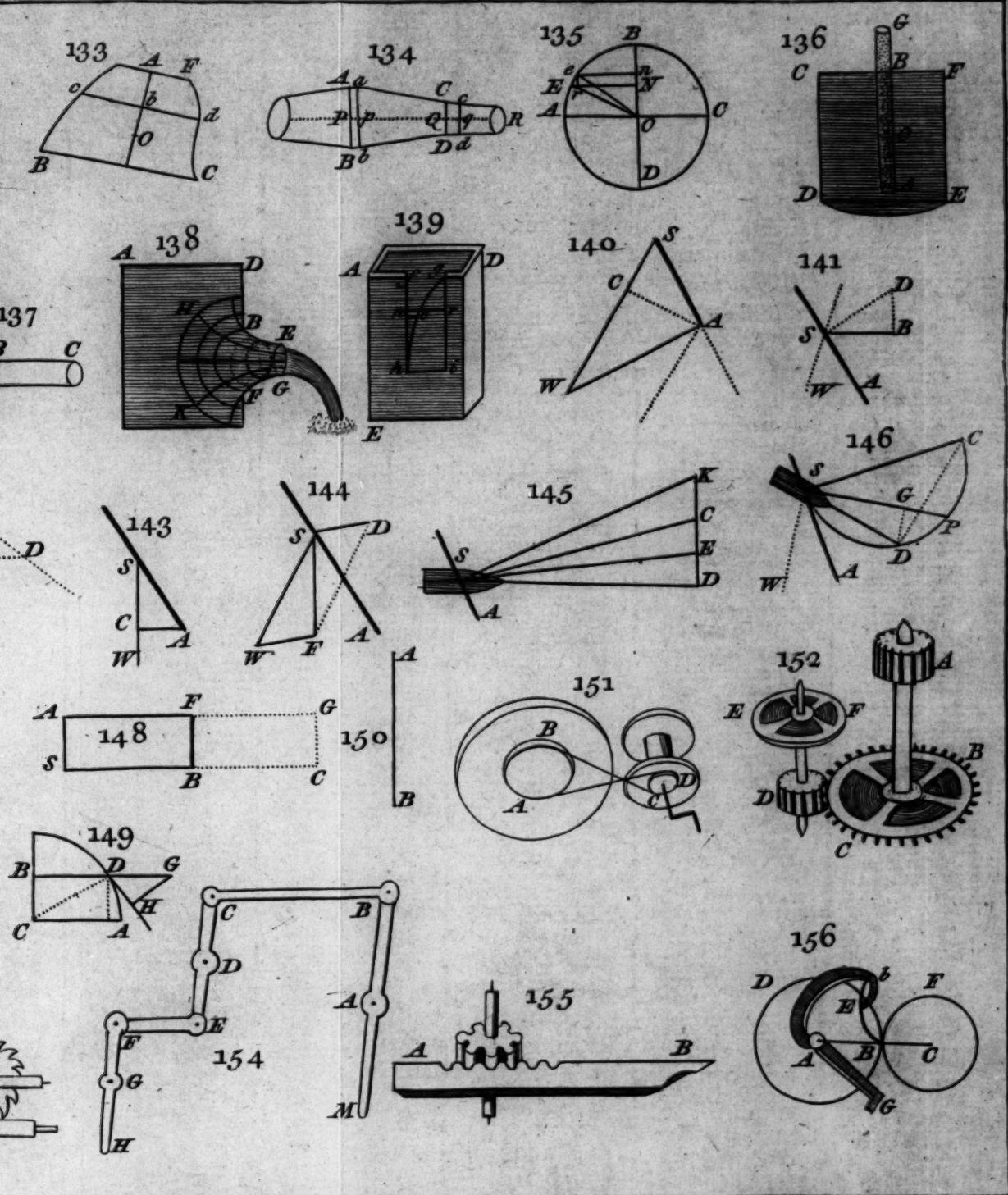
157. 3. The lever AB may be made to move up and down with either a uniform or accelerated motion, after this manner. Let AE be a wheel whose axis is parallel to the lever, and directly above it. Take any arch N_4 , and divide it into any number of equal parts at 1, 2, 3, &c. through which, from the center O , draw Oa, Ob, Oc, Od ; and make $1a, 2b, 3c, 4d$, &c. respectively equal to 1, 2, 3, 4 equal parts. And through the points N, a, b , &c. draw the curve $Nabcd$. Then the part NdF being made of solid wood, and fixed to the wheel, and the wheel being turned uniformly about, in the order ENA , the part NF will give a uniform motion to the lever AB , about the center of motion C . And you may fix as many of these teeth to the wheel as you will.

Again, in the tooth AD , if $A1, 12, 23$, &c. be taken equal, and $1a, 2b, 3c, 4d$, &c. be taken equal to 1, 4, 9, 16, &c. equal parts; and the curve $Aabcd$ be drawn, and the tooth formed. Then the lever will be moved with a uniformly accelerated motion.

The accelerated motion is proper for lifting a given weight, at the end B , as a hammer; or for working a pump, by a chain going over the end B .

4. The





4. The lever AB , may also be moved thus, by help of a F I G. machine GFD , moving uniformly along GD . Make HI , IF 158. right lines; and make as many such teeth as you will; and these will give a uniform motion to the lever.

Make the curves EFE all parabola's, equal and equi-distant; whose vertices are at F : and their bases meet at E , and these will make the lever rise and fall with an accelerated motion. Such parabolic teeth as these may be placed on a wheel, whose axis is perpendicular to the horizon.

5. One wheel may move another with an accelerative motion thus. On the circle or wheel EF , take Ea , ab , bc , &c. equal to each other. And on the edge of the wheel BD take $B1$ a very small part; and 13 , 35 , 57 , &c. 3 , 5 , 7 , &c. times $B1$, suppose the plane of the wheel EF to be extended as far as the marks, 1 , 3 , 5 , 7 , &c. then turn the wheel EF , till E fall on a ; then mark the point 1 on the plane of the wheel EF . Then turn EF till E comes to b ; and mark the point 3 on the plane of the wheel EF . Likewise let E come to c , d , &c. and mark the points 5 , 7 , &c. on the plane of the wheel EF ; then E 1 3 5 7 r is the figure of the tooth of the wheel EF , which being uniformly moved, will move DB with an accelerative motion. 159.

PROP. CXII.

To change the direction of any motion.

1. The direction of any motion may be changed, by the lever 160. of the first kind, for the two ends have opposite motions. Likewise a bended lever will change the direction to any other direction.

2. The direction of motion may be changed by the help of 161. pulleys; with a rope going over them. Thus the direction AB is changed successively into the directions BC , CD , DE , EF , FG .

3. The direction may be changed by wheels, whose axes are 162. perpendicular to one another. Thus the direction AB is changed into the direction EF ; by the wheel C , working in the crown wheel D .

4. The direction may be changed, by making the lanthorn 163. B , inclined in any given angle, to be moved by the coggs of the wheel

- FIG. wheel *A*. Here the rungs at *F*, where they work, must be parallel to the plane of the wheel *A*, or perpendicular to the coggs.
 163. The same thing may be done by wheels with teeth, as *C*, *D*.
 164. In both cases the axles of the two wheels must be in one plane.

P R O P. CXIII.

To regulate any motion, or to make it uniform.

165. 1. Any motion is made uniform, by the help of a pendulum *AB*, suspended at *A*, and vibrating. As the pendulum vibrates, it causes *CDE* to vibrate also, about the axis *DE*. The weight *I* carries the wheel *R*, and *R* moves *LF*. Now whilst the pendulum vibrates towards *M*, a tooth of the wheel *GF* goes off the pallat *I*, and another catches the pallat *H*; and when the pendulum returns towards *N*, it draws the pallat *H* off the tooth, and another catches the pallat *I*; and so on alternately. So that at every vibration of the pendulum, a tooth goes off one or other of the pallats.
166. 2. A uniform motion is effected by the pendulum *CP*, vibrating in the arch *NM* about the center of motion *C*. As the pendulum vibrates, it causes the piece *ADE* to vibrate along with it about the axis of motion *DE*. By this motion the leaf *a* catches hold of a tooth of the horizontal wheel *GF*, in its going; and the leaf *b* of another tooth, in returning. A wheel with a weight is applied to the pinion *L*, to keep the pendulum going.
167. 3. A pendulum may also be applied thus for the same purpose. *FG* is a thick wheel, or rather a double wheel, whose axis is parallel to the horizon. *nP* a pendulum vibrating upon the axis *DE*, which is parallel to the planes of the wheel *FG*; *anb* two wings perpendicular to *DE*, and to *nP*; 1, 1, 1 pins in the rim *G*; and 2, 2, 2 pins in the rim *F*. These pins are in the planes of the wheel; but not perpendicular to the circumference, but inclined in an angle of about 45 degrees, and the pins in one end are against the spaces in the other; *ab* is parallel to the axis of the wheel *FG*, but neither in the same horizontal or perpendicular plane; but almost the radius of the wheel below, and something more forward. Whilst the pendulum *P* vibrates in the arch *MN*, about the axis *DE*, the wing *a* catches hold of a tooth in the end *F*; and when it returns, the wing *b* catches hold of a tooth in the end *G*. Thus the pins acting

ing alternately against the wings *a, b*, keep the pendulum going, by the help of the weight *W*. FIG. 167.

4. A steady motion is continued by applying the heavy wheel *ABC*, to the machine: or the cross bar *DE* loaded with two equal weights at *D* and *E*. Or a cylinder of some heavy matter may be applied; being made to revolve about its axis. By these the force of the power, which would be lost, is kept in the wheel, and is equally distributed in all parts of the revolution. Such a wheel is of great use in such machines as act with unequal force at different times, or in different parts of a revolution. For by its weight it constantly goes on at the same rate, and makes the motion uniform, and every where equal. By reason of its weight a little variation of force will not sensibly alter its motion: and its friction, and the resistance of the air will hinder it from accelerating. If the machine slackens its motion, it will help it forward; if it tends to move too fast, it will keep it back. 168. 169.

Every such regulating wheel ought to be fixed upon that axis, where the motion is swiftest. And ought to be the heavier, the slower it is designed to move; and the lighter, the swifter the motion is. And in all cases the center of motion must be in the center of gravity of the wheel. And the axis may be placed parallel to the horizon, as well as perpendicular to it.

If the machine be large, and the axis of the heavy wheel be perpendicular to the horizon; the heavy wheel may be made to roll on the ground, round that axis; by putting the wheel upon another axis fixed in the former at right angles to it; and thus the weight is taken off the first axis. And two such wheels may be applied on opposite sides.

5. Any swift motion may be moderated by a fly *AB*, moveable about the axis *CD*. This is made of thin metal; at *s* is a spring to keep the axis and fly pretty stiff together. This bridle the rapidity of the motion of the machine, to which it is applied, by reason of its great resistance in the air; and therefore it hinders the motion from accelerating beyond a certain degree. This sort of fly is used in clocks, and is also useful in any motion that requires to stop, or move a contrary way. 170.

None of these regulating wheels or flies, add any new power to the machine; but rather retard the motion by their friction and resistance.

PROP. CXIV.

To describe several sorts of knots.

As ropes are made use of in several sorts of machines, and especially aboard of ships; it is proper for a mechanic to know how to tie them together. Therefore I shall here describe several sorts of knots; not so much to teach how to tie them, as to shew the form they appear in, when they are tied. For the method of tying them is best learned from those that can tie

FIG. them already.

171. 1. *A thumb knot.* This is the simplest of all; and is used to tie at the end of a rope, to hinder its opening out. Also it is used by tailors at the end of their thread.
172. 2. *A loop knot.* This is used to join pieces of ropes together.
173. 3. *A draw knot,* is the same as the last; only one (or both) of the ends returns the same way back, as *a b c d e*. By pulling at *a* the part *bcd* comes through, and the knot is loosed.
174. 4. *A ring knot.* This serves also to join pieces of rope together.
175. 5. *Another knot* for tying ropes together. This is made use of when any rope is often to be loosed.
176. 6. *A running knot,* to draw any thing close. By pulling at the end *a*, the rope is drawn through the loop *b*, and the part *cd* is drawn close about a beam, &c.
177. 7. *Another knot,* to tie any thing to a post. Here the end may be put through as oft as you will.
178. 8. *A very small knot.* There is a thumb knot made at the end of each piece; and the end of the other is to go through it. Thus the rope *ac* runs through the loop *d*, and *bd* through *c*. And then drawn close by pulling at *a* and *b*: if the ends *e, f* be drawn, the knot will be loosed again.
179. 9. *A fisher's knot,* or *water knot.* This is the same as the 4th, only the ends are to be put twice through the ring, which in that was but once; and then drawn close.
180. 10. *A mashing knot* for nets; and is to be drawn close.
181. 11. *A barber's knot,* or a knot for cawls of wigs. This must be drawn close.
194. 12. *A bowline knot.* When this is drawn close, it makes a loop that will not slip, as fig. *R*. This serves to hitch over any thing.
193. 13. *A wale knot* is made with the three strands of a rope, so that it cannot slip. When the rope is put through a hole, this

this knot keeps it from slipping through: it is represented at FIG. S, fig. 193. If the three strands are wrought round once or twice more, after the same manner; it is called *crowning*. By this means the knot is made bigger and stronger. A thumb knot, art. 1, may be applied to the same use as this.

Concerning the strength of ropes, see the latter end of Sect. VIII.

S E C T. XII.

*The powers and properties of compound engines;
of forces acting within the machine; of friction.*

P R O P. CXV.

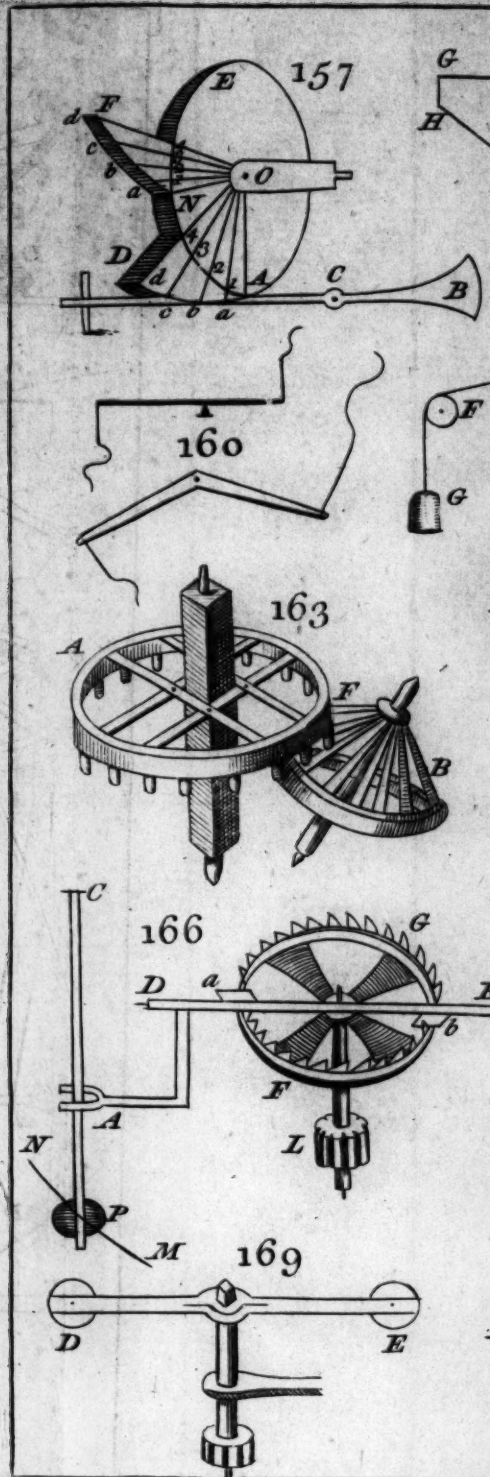
FIG. *In any compounded machine, if the power and weight keep the machine and all its parts, in equilibrio; then the power is to the weight, in the compound ratio of the power to the weight in every simple machine, of which the whole is composed.*

For let the compound machine be divided into all its simple mechanic powers; and in the first let the power be to the weight as A to B . Then considering the weight B in the first, as the power in the second, to which it is equal (by Ax. 3.) let that power in the second machine, be to the weight as B to C . Then ex æquo, the first power A is to the second weight C ; in the compound ratio of A to B and B to C . In like manner, if the weight in the second be taken for the power in the third, and this power be to the weight as C to D ; then the first power A is to the last weight D , in the compound ratio of A to B , B to C , and C to D ; and so on through the whole.

Cor. *In any machine composed of wheels, the power is to the weight in the compound ratio of the diameter of the axle where the weight is applied, to the diameter of that where the power is applied; and the number of teeth in the pinion of each axis, beginning at the power, to the number of teeth in each wheel they work in, till you come at the weight.*

Or, instead of the teeth, you may take their diameters.

P R O P.



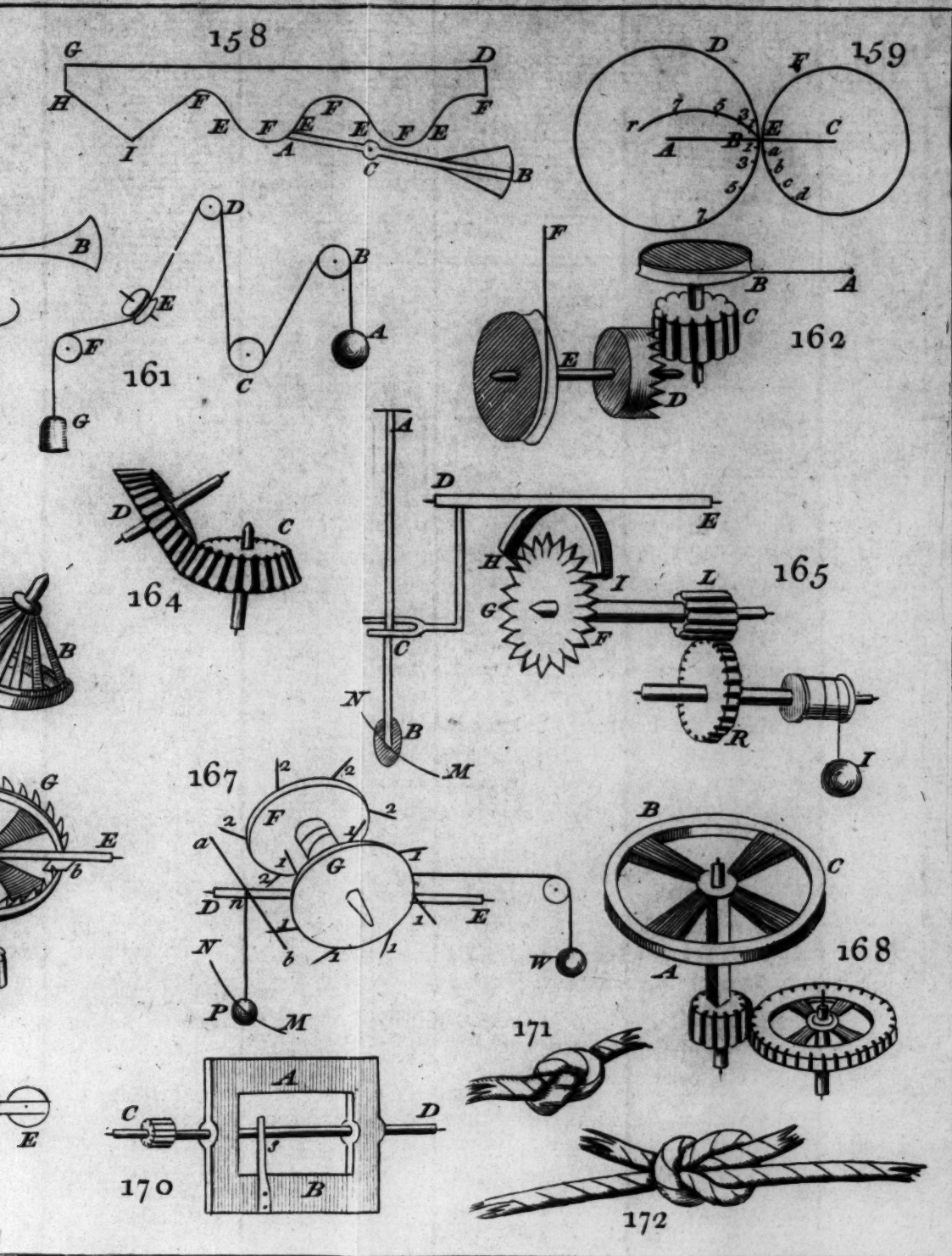


FIG.

PROP. CXVI.

If the power and weight be in equilibrio on any machine, if they be put in motion, the velocity of the weight will be to that of the power, as the power is to the weight.

For since they are in equilibrio, one of them cannot of itself move the other; therefore if they be put into motion, the momentum or quantity of motion of the weight will be equal to that of the power; and therefore their velocities will be reciprocally as their quantities.

Cor. 1. Hence it follows, that if any weight is moved by help of a machine, what is gained in power is lost in time.

For in whatever proportion the power is less than the weight, in the same proportion will the weight be slower than the power.

Cor. 2. Hence the motion of the weight is not at all increased by any engine, or mechanical instrument, only the velocity of the weight is so much diminished thereby, that the quantity of motion of the weight may not exceed the quantity of motion of the power; and therefore it is a vain fancy for any one to think that he can move a great weight with a little power, and with the same velocity as with a greater power.

For the advantage gained by the power is lost by the velocity. If any power is able to raise a pound with a given velocity, it is impossible by the help of any machine whatever, that the same power can raise two pounds with the same velocity; yet it may, by help of a machine, be made to raise two pounds with half that velocity, or even 1000 pounds with the thousandth part of the velocity. But still there is no greater quantity of motion produced when 1000 pounds weight is moved than when 1 pound; the 1000 pounds being proportionally slower. The power and use of machines consists only in this, that by their means the velocity of the weight may be diminished at pleasure, so that a given weight may be moved with a given power, or that with a given force any given resistance may be overcome; mechanic instruments being only the means whereby one body communicates motion to another, and not designed to produce a motion that had no existence before.

Z

Cor.

- FIG. Cor. 3. Hence also it is plain, that a given power or quantity of force applied to move a heavy body by help of a machine, can produce no greater quantity of motion in that body than if that force was immediately applied to the body itself; nor not quite so much, by reason of the friction and resistance of the engine; and if the power be given, you may choose whether you will move a greater weight with a less velocity, or a less weight with a greater velocity; but to do both is utterly repugnant to the eternal laws of nature.

P R O P. CXVII.

182. If any machine CD is to be moved by the help of levers, wheels, &c. and if the power that moves it acts intirely within the machine, and exerts its force against some external object B , then the force applied within, to move the machine, will be just the same as if the machine was at rest, and the object B was to be moved; supposing B to be as easily moved as the machine.

For suppose first the lever AFB to be fixed, and to make a part of the machine, and let the external force acting at B , which is capable to move the machine, be 1. Now, suppose the lever AFB moveable about F , and a force applied at A so great as to act at B , with the force 1; then the action and re-action at B being the same as before, it is plain the machine will be moved as before; but the force now acting at A is $\frac{BF}{AF} \times 1$, just the same as if the point F was fixed and B was to be moved; and if more levers, or any number of wheels be added, the thing will still be the same.

Otherwise;

Let the absolute force to move the machine be 1, and the force acting at A be f , and let us first consider it as acting out of the machine; then B being fixed, is the fulcrum, therefore the force acting at F is $\frac{AB}{FB} \times f$; now if the acting force be considered in the machine, it will not be urged forward with all this force, for the re-action will be equal to f , the power at A ;

A; therefore the absolute force the machine is moved with, FIG. is $\frac{AB}{FB} \times f - f$ or $\frac{AB-FB}{FB} \times f$, that is $\frac{AF}{FB} \times f$, but this is = 182.
 I, therefore $f = \frac{FB}{AF} \times 1$.

Cor. 1. Hence if the absolute external force, to move any body or machine be given, and the machine is to be moved by an internal power, that power may be found, by supposing the machine at rest, and the external object *B* was to be removed, and to require the same absolute force to move it.

For it is the same thing, as to the power, whether the machine, or the external object be moved, whilst the other is at rest.

Cor. 2. If the power acting within the machine be not communicated to some external object, it will have no force at all to move the machine; and any force that both begins and ends within it, does nothing at all to move it.

For the power acting only against some part of the machine, will be destroyed by the contrary and equal re-action; and the body being acted on by these equal and contrary forces, will not be moved at all. Thus if a man, sitting in the head of a boat, pull the stern towards him, by a rope, the boat will not be moved at all out of its place by that force.

P R O P. CXVIII.

To determine the friction, and other irregularities in mechanical engines.

The propositions hitherto laid down, suppose all bodies perfectly smooth, that they slide over one another without any friction, and move freely without any resistance; but since there is no such thing as perfect smoothness in bodies, therefore in rubbing against one another, they meet with more or less friction, according to their roughness; and in moving in any medium, will be resisted according to the density of the medium. Even ropes going over pullies cannot be bended without some force.

Among machines, some have a great deal more friction than others, and some very little. Thus a pendulum has little or no friction, but what arises from the resistance of the air; but

FIG. a carriage has a great deal of friction; for upon plain ground a loaded cart requires the strength of several horses to draw it along, and all or most of this force is owing to its friction. All compounded machines have a great deal of friction, and so much the more as they consist of more parts, that rub against one another. And there is great variety in several sorts of bodies, as to the quantity of friction they have, and even in the same bodies under different circumstances; upon which account it will be impossible to give any standing rules, by which its quantity can be exactly determined. All we can do is to lay down such particular rules, as have been deduced from experiments made upon particular bodies, which rules will require some variation under different circumstances, according to the judgment and experience of the artist.

1. Wood and all metals when oiled or greased have nearly the same friction, and the smoother they are, the less friction they have; yet metals may be so far polished as to increase friction, by the cohesion of their parts.

Wood slides easier upon the ground in wet weather than in dry, and easier than iron in dry weather; but iron slides easier than wood in wet weather. Lead makes a great deal of resistance. Iron or steel running in brass, makes the least friction of any. In wood acting against wood, grease makes the motion twice as easy, or rather $\frac{2}{3}$ easier. Wheel-naves greased or tarred, go 4 times easier than when wet.

Metals oiled make the friction less than when polished, and twice as little as when unpolished.

In general, the softer or rougher the bodies, the greater is their friction.

2. As to particular cases: a cubic piece of soft wood of eight pound weight, moving upon a smooth plane of soft wood, at the rate of three feet per second; its friction is about $\frac{1}{4}$ the weight of it, but if it be rough, the friction is little less than half the weight.

Upon the same supposition, other soft wood upon soft wood very smooth, the friction is about $\frac{1}{4}$ the weight.

Soft wood upon hard, or hard upon soft, $\frac{1}{3}$ or $\frac{2}{3}$ the weight.

Hard wood upon hard wood, $\frac{1}{3}$ or $\frac{2}{3}$ the weight.

Polished steel moving on steel or pewter, $\frac{1}{4}$ the weight; moving on copper or lead, $\frac{1}{3}$ the weight; on brass $\frac{1}{2}$ the weight. Metals of the same sort have more friction than different sorts.

The friction, *ceteris paribus*, increases with the weight, almost in the same proportion. The friction is also greater with a greater velocity, but not in proportion to it, except in very few

few cases. A greater surface also causes somewhat more friction with the same weight and velocity; yet friction may sometimes be increased, by having too little surface to move on: as upon clay, &c. where the body sinks. FIG.

3. The friction arising from the bending of ropes about machines, differs according to their stiffness, the temper of the weather, degree of flexibility, &c. but *ceteris paribus*, the force or difficulty of bending a rope is as the square of the diameter of the rope, and its tension, directly, and the diameter of the cylinder or pulley it goes about, reciprocally.

A rope of 1 inch diameter, whose tension, or weight drawing it, is 5lb. going over a pulley 3 inches diameter, requires a force of 1lb. to bend it.

4. The resistance of a plane moving through a fluid, is as the square of the velocity; and (putting v = velocity in feet, in a second,) it is equal to the weight of a column of the fluid, whose base is the plane, and height $\frac{vv}{64}$; and in a globe it is but half as much.

5. The friction of a fluid running through a tube is as the velocity and diameter of the tube.

But the friction is greater in respect to the quantity of the fluid, in small tubes than in large ones, and that reciprocally as their diameters; but the absolute quantity of the friction in tubes is but very small, except the velocity be very great and the tube very long.

But if a pipe be divided into several lesser ones, whose number is n , the resistance arising from the friction will be increased as $\sqrt{n}$; for the area of the section of any one pipe will be $\frac{1}{n}$, and the friction, being as the circumference, will be as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$; and therefore the friction of them all will be $\frac{n}{\sqrt{n}}$, or as $\sqrt{n}$.

6. As to the mechanic powers, the single lever makes no resistance by friction; but if by the motion of the lever in lifting, the fulcrum or place of support be changed further from the weight, the power will be decreased thereby.

7. In any wheel of a machine, running upon an axis, the friction on the axis is as the weight upon it, the diameter of the axis, and the angular velocity. This sort of friction is but small.

8. In

FIG. 8. In the pulley, if p, q be two weights, and q the greater, and if $W = \frac{4pq}{p+q}$, then W is the weight upon the axis of the single pulley; and it is not increased by the acceleration of the weight q , but remains always the same.

The friction of the pulley is very considerable when the sheaves rub against the blocks, and by the wearing of the holes and axles.

The friction on the axis of the pulley is as the weight W , its angular velocity, the diameter of the axis directly, and the diameter of the pulley inversely. A power of 100 lb. with the addition of 50 lb. will but draw up 500 lb. with a tackle of 5.

And 15 lb. over a single pulley will draw up only 14 lb.

9. In the screw, there is a great deal of friction. Those with sharp threads have more friction than those with square threads, and endless screws have more than either. Screws with a square thread raise a weight with more ease than those with a sharp thread.

In the common screw the friction is so great, that it will sustain the weight in any position given, when the power is taken off; and therefore the friction is at least equal to the power; from whence it will follow, that in the screw,

The power must be to the weight or resistance, at least as twice the perpendicular height of a thread, to the circumference described by one revolution of the power, if it be able to raise the weight, or only sustain it. This friction of the screw is of great use, as it serves to keep the weight in any given position.

10. In the wedge, the friction is at least equal to the power, as it retains any position it is driven into; therefore in the wedge,

The power must be to the weight, at least as twice the base to the height, to overcome any resistance.

11. To find the friction of any engine, begin at the power, and consider the velocity and the weight at the first rubbing part, and estimate its quantity of friction, by some of the foregoing articles; then proceed to the next rubbing part, and do the same for it; and so on through the whole.

And note, something more is to be allowed for increase of friction, by every new addition to the power.

Cor. Hence will appear the difficulty or rather impossibility of a perpetual motion, or such a motion as is to continue the same forever,

ever, or at least as long as the materials will last, that compose the F I G. moving machine.

For such a motion as this ought continually to return undiminished, notwithstanding any resistance it meets with, which is impossible. For although any body once put into motion, and moving freely without any resistance, or any external retarding force acting upon it, would for ever retain that motion; yet in fact we are certain, that no body or machine can move at all, without some degree of friction and resistance. And therefore it must follow, that from the resistance of the medium, and the friction of the parts of the machine upon one another, its motion will gradually decay, till at last all the motion is destroyed, and the machine is at rest. Nor can this be otherwise, except some new active force, equal to all its resistance, adds a new motion to it; but that cannot be from the body or machine itself, for then the body would move itself, or be the cause of its own motion, which is absurd.

P R O P. CXIX.

To contrive a proper machine that shall move a given weight with a given power; or with a given quantity of force, shall overcome any other given resistance.

If the given power is not able to overcome the given resistance, when directly applied, that is, when the power applied is less than the weight or resistance given, then the thing is to be performed by the help of a machine made with levers, wheels, pulleys, screws, &c. so adjusted, that when the weight and power are put in motion on the machine, the velocity of the power may be at least so much greater than that of the weight, as the weight and friction of the machine taken together, is greater than the power. For on this principle depends the mechanism or contrivance of mechanical engines, used to draw or raise heavy bodies, or overcome any other force. The whole design of these being to give such a velocity to the power in respect of the weight, as that the momentum of the power may exceed the momentum of the weight. For if machines are so contrived, that the velocities of the agent and resistant are reciprocally as their forces, the agent will just sustain the resistant; but with a greater degree of velocity will overcome it. So that if the

FIG. the excess of velocity in the power is so great, as to overcome all that resistance which commonly arises from the friction or attrition of contiguous bodies, as they slide by one another, or from the cohesion of bodies that are to be separated, or from the weights of bodies to be raised; the excess of the force remaining, after all these resistances are overcome, will produce an acceleration of motion proportional thereto, as well in the parts of the machine, as in the resisting body. Now how a machine may be contrived to perform this to the best advantage, will appear from the following rules.

1. Having assigned the proportion of your power and the weight to be raised; the next thing is to consider how to combine levers, wheels, pulleys, &c. so that working together they may be able to give a velocity to the power, which shall be to that of the weight something greater than in the proportion of the weight to the power; this done, you must estimate your quantity of friction, by the last Prop. and if the velocity of the power be to that of the weight, still in a greater proportion than the weight and friction taken together is to the power; then your machine will be able to raise the weight. And note, this proportion must be so much greater, as you would have your engine work faster.

2. But the proportion of the velocity of the power and weight, must not be made too great neither; for it is a fault to give a machine too much power, as well as too little. For if the power can raise the weight, and overcome the resistance, and the engine perform its proper effect in a convenient time, and works well, it is sufficient for the end proposed. And it is in vain to make more additions to the engine, to increase the power any further, for that would not only be a needless expence, but the engine would lose time in working.

3. As to the power applied to work the engine, it may be either a living power, as men, horses, &c. or an artificial power, as a spring, &c. or a natural power, as wind, water, fire, weights, &c.

When the quantity of the power is known, it matters not as to the effect, what kind of power it is; for the same quantity of any sort will produce the same effect. And different sorts of powers may be applied in an equal quantity, a great variety of ways.

The most easy power applied to a machine is weight, if it be capable of effecting the thing designed; if not, then wind, water, &c. if that can conveniently be had, and without much expence.

A spring

A spring is also a convenient moving power for several machines; but it never acts equally as a weight does; but is stronger when much bent, than when but a little bent, and that in proportion to the degree of bending, or the distance it is forced to. But springs grow weaker by often bending, or remaining long bent; yet they recover part strength by lying unbent.

The natural powers, wind and water, may be applied with vast advantage to the working of great engines, when managed with skill and judgment. The due application of these has much abridged the labours of men; for there is scarce any labour to be performed, but an ingenious artificer can tell how to apply these powers to execute his design, and answer his purpose. For any constant motion being given, it may, by a due application, be made to produce any other motions we desire. Therefore these powers are the most easy and useful, and of the greatest benefit to mankind. Besides, they cost nothing, nor require any repetition or renewing, like a weight or a spring, which require to be wound up. When these cannot be had, or cannot serve our end; we have recourse to some living power, as men, horses, &c.

4. Men may apply their strength several ways, in working a machine. A man of ordinary strength turning a roller by the handle, can act for a whole day against a resistance equal to 30lb. weight; and if he works 10 hours in a day, he will raise a weight of 30lb. $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet in a second; or if the weight be greater, he will raise it so much less in proportion. But a man may act, for a small time, against a resistance of 50lb. or more.

If two men work at a windlass, or roller, they can more easily draw up 70lb. than one man can 30lb. provided the elbow of one of the handles, be at right angles to that of the other. And with a fly, or heavy wheel applied to it; a man may do $\frac{1}{3}$ part more work; and for a little while act with a force, or overcome a continual resistance of 80lb. and work a whole day when the resistance is but 40lb.

Men used to carrying, such as porters, will carry, some 150lb. others 200 or 250lb. according to their strength.

A man can draw but about 70 or 80lb. horizontally; for he can but apply about half his weight.

If the weight of a man be 140lb. he can act with no greater a force in thrusting horizontally, at the height of his shoulders, than 27lb.

As to horses, a horse is, generally speaking, as strong as 5 men. A horse will carry 240 or 270lb.

A a

A horse

FIG. A horse draws to greatest advantage, when the line of direction is a little elevated above the horizon, and the power acts against his breast. And can draw 200lb. for eight hours in a day at $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour. If he draw 240lb. he can work but six hours, and not go quite so fast. And in both cases, if he carries some weight, he will draw better than if he carried none. And this is the weight a horse is supposed to be able to draw over a pulley out of a well. In a cart, a horse may draw 1000lb.

The most force a horse can exert is, when he draws something above a horizontal position.

The worst way of applying the strength of a horse, is to make him carry or draw up hill. And three men in a steep hill, carrying each 100lb. will climb up faster than a horse with 300lb.

Though a horse may draw in a round walk of 18 feet diameter; yet such a walk should not be less than 25 or 30 feet diameter.

5. Every machine ought to be made of as few parts, and those as simple as possible, to answer its purpose; not only because the expence of making and repairing will be less; but it will also be less liable to any disorder. And 'tis needless to do a thing with many, which may be done with fewer parts.

6. If a weight is to be raised but a very little way, the lever is the most simple, easy, and ready machine. Or if the weight be very great, the common screw is most proper. But if the weight is to be raised a great way, the wheel and axle is a proper power, and blocks and pullies are easier still; and the same may be done by help of the perpetual screw.

Great wheels to be wrought by men or cattle, are of most use and convenience, when their axles are perpendicular to the horizon; but if by water, &c. then 'tis best to have their axles horizontal.

7. As to the combination of simple machines together, to make a compound one. Though the lever when simple, cannot raise a weight to any great height; and in this case is of little service; yet it is of great use when compounded with others. Thus the spokes of a great wheel are all levers perpetually acting. And a beam fixed to the axis to draw the wheel about by men or horses, is a lever. The lever also may be combined with the screw, but not conveniently with pullies or with the wedge. The wheel and axle is combined with great advantage with pullies. The screw is not well combined with pullies; but the perpetual screw combined with the wheel, is very serviceable. The wedge cannot be combined with any other mechanical

chanical power; and it only performs its effect by percussion; FIG. but this force of percussion may be increased by engines.

Pullies may be combined with pullies, and wheels with wheels. Therefore if any single wheel would be too large, and take up too much room; it may be divided into two or three or more wheels and trundles, or wheels and pinions, as in clock-work; so as to have the same power, and perform the same effect.

In wheels with teeth, the number of teeth that play together in two wheels, ought to be prime to each other, that the same teeth may not meet at every revolution. For when different teeth meet, they by degrees wear themselves into a proper figure. Therefore they should be contrived, that the same teeth meet as seldom as possible.

8. The strength of every part of the machine ought to be made proportional to the stress it is to bear. And therefore let every lever be made so much stronger, as its length and the weight it is to support is greater. And let its strength diminish proportionally from the fulcrum, or point where the greatest stress is, to each end. The axles of wheels and pullies must be so much stronger, as they are to bear greater weight. The teeth of wheels, and the wheels themselves, which act with greater force, must be proportionally stronger. And in any combination of wheels and axles, make their strength diminish gradually from the weight to the power, so that the strength of every part be reciprocally as the velocity it has. The strength of ropes must be according to their tension, and that is as the squares of their diameters, (see the end of Sect. VIII.). And in general whatever parts a machine is composed of, the strength of every particular part of it must be adjusted to the stress upon it, according to Sect. VIII. Therefore in square beams the cubes of the diameters must be made proportional to the stress they bear. And let no part be stronger or bigger than is necessary for the stress upon it: not only for the ease and well-going of the machine, but for the diminishing the friction. For all superfluous matter in any part of it, is nothing but a dead weight upon the machine, and serves for nothing, but to clog its motion. And he is by no means a perfect mechanic, that does not only adjust the strength to the stress; but also contrive all the parts to last equally well, that the whole machine may fail together.

9. To avoid friction as much as possible, the machine ought not to have any unnecessary motions, or useless parts; for a multiplicity of parts, by their weight and motion, increase the friction. The diameters of the wheels and pullies ought to be

FIG. large, and the diameters of the arbors or spindles they run on, as small as can be consistent with their strength. All ropes and cords must be as pliable as possible, and for that end are rubbed with tar or grease; the teeth of wheels must be made to fit and fill up the opens; and cut in the form of epicycloids. All the axles, where the motion is, and all teeth, where they work, and all parts that in working rub upon one another, must be made smooth: and when the machine goes, must be oiled or greased. If a joint is to go pretty stiff and steady, rub a little grease upon it.

183. The axis *a* of a wheel, may have its friction diminished, by causing it to run on two rollers, *B, C*, turning round with it, upon two centers.

184. Likewise instead of the teeth of wheels, one may place little wheels as *A, B*, running upon an axis in its center. And this will take away almost all the friction of the teeth. And in lanterns or trundles, the rounds may be made to turn about, instead of being fixed.

In all machines with wheels, the axes or spindles ought not to shake, which they will do, if they be too short. And their ends ought just to fill their holes.

When the teeth of a wheel are much worn away, it makes that wheel move irregularly about, increases the friction, and requires more force; and may cause the teeth of two wheels to run foul upon one another, and stop their motion, and endanger breaking the teeth. To prevent this, proper care should be taken to dress the teeth, and keep them to their proper figure.

10. When any motion is to be long continued; contrive the power to move or act always one way, if it can be done. For this is better and easier performed than when the motion is interrupted, and the power is forced to move first one way, and then another. Because every new change of motion requires a new additional force to effect it. Besides, a body in motion cannot suddenly receive a contrary motion, without great violence. And the moving any part of the machine contrary ways by turns, with sudden jerks, tends only to shake the machine to pieces.

11. In a machine that moves always one way, endeavour to have the motion uniform. Some methods of doing this may be seen in Prop. CXIII. and if one uniform motion be required to produce a motion either uniform or accelerated, some light may be had from Prop. CXI. Likewise how to communicate motion, consult Prop. CX. And to change the direction, see Prop. CXII.

12. But

12. But when the nature of the thing requires that a motion FIG. is to be suddenly communicated to a body, or suddenly stop: to prevent any damage or violence to the engine, by a sudden jolt; let the force act against some spring; or beam of wood, which may supply the place of a spring.

13. In regard to the size of the machine; let it be made as large as it can, conveniently. The greater the machine the exacter it will work, and perform all its motions the better. For there will always be some errors in the making, as well as in the materials; and consequently in the working of the machine. The resistance of the medium in some machines has a sensible effect. But all these mechanical errors bear a less proportion to the motion of the machine, in great machines, than in little ones; being nearly reciprocally as their diameters; supposing they are made of the same matter, and with the same accuracy, and are equally well finished. Therefore in a small machine they are more sensible; but in a great one, almost vanish. Therefore great machines will answer better than smaller, in all respects, except in strength; for the greater the machine the weaker it is, and less able to resist any violence.

14. For engines that go by water, it is necessary to measure the velocity and force of the water. To get the velocity, drop in pieces of sticks, &c. and observe how far they are carried in a second, or any given time.

But if it flow through a hole in a reservoir or standing receptacle of water, the velocity will be found from the depth of the hole below the surface; by Cor. 2. Prop. XCVII. and its force by Cor. 1. Prop. CVII.

Thus let $s = 16\frac{1}{2}$ feet, v = velocity of the fluid per second. B = the area of the hole. H = height of the water; all in feet. Then the velocity $v = \sqrt{2sH}$; and its force = the weight of the quantity $\frac{vv}{2s}B$ or HB of water, or $= \frac{62\frac{1}{2}}{112}HB$ hundred weight: because a cubic foot is $= 62\frac{1}{2}$ lb. averd. Also a hoghead is about $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet, or 531 lb. and a ton is 4 hogheads.

When you have but a small quantity of water, you must contrive it to fall as high as you can, to have the greater velocity, and consequently more force upon the engine.

15. If water is to be conveyed through pipes to a great distance, and the descent be but small; so much larger pipes must be used, because the water will come slow. And these pipes ought not to be made straiter in some places than others; for
the

181. the quantity of water conveyed through them, depends upon the bigness of the bore at the straitest place.

Pipes of conduct coming directly from an engine, should be made of iron, with flanches at the ends to screw them together, with lead between: or else of wood; for lead pipes will bulge out at every stroke of the engine, and burst. But pipes next a jet must be lead. Pipes should not turn off at an angle, but gradually in a curve: pipes of elm will last 20 or 30 years in the ground. But they must be laid so deep, that the frost may not reach them; or else the water must be let out; otherwise the frost will split them.

The thickness of any pipe must be as the diameter of the bore, and also as the depth from the spring. For a lead pipe of 6 inches bore, and 60 or 70 feet high, the thickness must be half an inch. And in wooden pipes 2 inches.

Water should not be driven through pipes faster than 4 feet per second, by reason of the friction of the tubes. Nor should it be much wire-drawn, that is, squeezed through smaller pipes; for that creates a resistance, as the water way is less in narrow pipes.

And in pump work, where water is conveyed through pipes to higher places, the bores of the pipes should not be made too strait upwards; for the straiter they are near the top, the less water will be discharged. Nor should the pipe that brings the water into the pump be too strait, for the same reason. The wider these are, the easier the pump works.

When pipes are wind-bound, that is when air is lodged in them that the water can hardly pass: it must be discharged thus. Going from the spring till you come to the first rising of the ground; dig it open till the pipe be laid bare, then with a nail driven into it, at the highest part, or rather a little beyond, make a hole in the top, and all the air will blow out at the hole; then when the water comes, batter up the hole again. Do the same at every eminence, and all the air will be discharged. If the water runs fast through the pipes, the air will be beyond the eminence; but stopping the water, the air will ascend to the highest part. If air be driven in at first, along with the water, the nail hole must be left open; or a cock placed there to open occasionally. Sometimes a small leaden pipe is placed over the other, communicating with it in several places, in which is a cock at top to open upon occasion.

192. 16. When any work is to be performed by a water wheel moved by the water running under it, and striking the paddles

or,

or laddle boards, the channel it moves in ought to be some-
 thing wider than the hole of the adjutage, and so close to the
 floats on every side, as to let little or no water pass; and when
 past the wheel, to open a little that the water may spread. It
 is of no advantage to have a great number of floats or paddles,
 for those past the perpendicular are resisted by the back water,
 and those before it are struck obliquely. The greatest effect
 that such a wheel can perform, in communicating any motion,
 is when the paddles of the wheel move with $\frac{1}{2}$ the velocity of
 the water; in which case, the force upon the paddles is $\frac{1}{2}$ only;
 supposing the absolute force of the water against the paddles,
 when the wheel stands still, to be 1. So that the utmost mo-
 tion which the wheel can generate, is but $\frac{1}{2}$ of that which the
 force of the water against the paddles, at rest, would produce.
 This is when the wheel is at the best; but oftentimes far less
 is done.

Machines to raise water, though well made, seldom lose less
 than $\frac{1}{3}$ the computed quantity of water to be raised. The best
 contrived engine is scarce $\frac{1}{3}$ part better than the worst contrived
 engine, when they are equally well executed.

A man with the best water engine cannot raise above one
 hoghead of water in a minute, 10 feet high, to work all day.

17. When a weight is to be raised with a given corporeal
 power, by means of the wheel and axle, so that the weight
 may receive the greatest motion possible in a given time; the
 radius of the wheel and axle, and the weight to be raised, ought
 to be so adjusted, that the radius of the axle (EF): may be
 to the radius of the wheel (AB): as $\frac{2}{3}$ the power (P): to
 the weight to be raised (W): or, which comes to the same
 thing, the velocity gained by the power in descending, must
 be $\frac{2}{3}$ the velocity which would be gained by gravity, in the
 same time.

This only holds good, when the power is a heavy body, as
 well as the weight: but does not take place, when the power
 is some immaterial active force, such as that of an elastic me-
 dium, the strength of a spring, &c. whose weight is inconfi-
 derable.

18. *These principles also are very useful, and necessary to be
 known, where water works are concerned.*

The pressure of the atmosphere upon a square inch, is 14.7 lb.
 averd. at a medium.

The height of a column of water, equal to the weight of
 the atmosphere, is $11\frac{1}{4}$ yards.

A cubic

FIG. A cubic foot of water weighs $62\frac{1}{2}$ lb. *avord.* and contains 6.128 *ale* gallons.

An *ale* gallon of water contains 282 inches, and weighs 10.2 lb. *avord.*

A tun of water *ale* measure, weighs 1.1 ton *avord.* at 63 gallons the hoghead.

A cylinder of water a yard high, and d inches diameter, contains $\frac{1}{10} dd$ *ale* gallons, and weighs $1\frac{1}{4} dd$ pounds *avord.*

FIG.

DESCRIBED [185] ON

S E C T. XIII.

*The Description of compound Machines or Engines,
and the Method of computing their Powers or
Forces; with some Account of the Advantages
and Disadvantages of their Construction.*

P R O P. CXX.

*To describe several sorts of engines, and to compute their forces or
effects.*

There are two things required to make a good mechanic or engineer. The first is a good invention for contriving all the parts of a machine, to perform its motions and effects in the most simple and easy manner. The next is, to be able to compute the power or force of it; to know whether it can really perform the effect expected from it or not. The foundation of both these has been already laid down in this book. What seems to be necessary farther, is to give some examples in practice, by shewing the construction of several mechanic engines, and computing their powers. As there is great skill and sagacity in contriving fit and proper ways to perform any motion, so this is principally to be attained by practice, and a thorough acquaintance with machines of several kinds; I shall therefore give the mechanical construction of several sorts of machines, made for several different purposes, which will assist the reader's invention, and give him some idea how he may proceed in contriving a machine for any end proposed; of which I shall only give a short explanation of the principal parts, not troubling the reader with any description of their minuter parts, nor how they are joined together, or strengthened, &c. It is sufficient here to shew the disposition and nature of the principal parts; the rest belongs to carpenters, joiners, smiths, &c. and is easily understood by any one.

FIG.

To compute their powers.

1. As to simple machines, they are easily accounted for, and their forces computed, by the properties of the mechanic powers.

2. For compound machines; suppose any machine divided into all the simple ones that compose it; then begin at the power and call it 1; and, by the properties of the mechanic powers, find the force with which the first simple machine acts upon the second, in numbers; then call this force 1, and find the force it acts upon the third, in numbers; and putting this force 1, find the force acting on the fourth, in numbers, and so on to the last. Then multiply all these numbers together, the product will give the force of the machine, supposing the first power 1.

3. When pullies are concerned in the machine, all the parts of the same running rope, that go and return about several pulleys, freely and without interruption, must be all numbered alike for the force; and if any rope act against several others, it must be numbered with the sum of all these it acts against.

4. In a combination of wheels; take the product of the number of teeth in all the wheels that act upon and drive others, for the power; and the product of the teeth in all the wheels moved by them, for the weight; or, instead of the teeth take the diameters.

Or thus,

When a machine is in motion, if you measure the velocity of the weight, and that of the power, in numbers, then the first number to the second gives the proportion of the power to the weight.

Otherwise thus,

In wheel work, there are always two wheels fixed upon one axis; or else one wheel, and a pinion, trundle, or barrel, which supplies the place of a wheel. Of these two, call that wheel the *leader* which is acted on by the power, or by some other wheel; and the other, on the same axis, call the *follower*, which drives some other forward. Then, having either the number of teeth, or the diameter, of each, take the product of all the leaders for the weight, and the product of all the followers for the power. Here the leader receives the motion, and the follower gives it.

5. And

5. And if the velocity of the power or weight be required, **FIG.**
take the product of all the leaders, for the velocity of the power,
and the product of all the followers for the velocity of the weight.

Other things that are more complex and difficult, must be referred to the general laws of motion.

EXAMPLE II. *Scissars, pinchers, &c.* may be referred to the lever of the first kind. A *handspike* and *crow* are levers of the first kind. *Knives* fixed at one end, to cut wood, bread, &c. are levers of the second kind. The *bones* in animals, also *tongs*, are levers of the third kind. A *hammer* to draw a nail is a bended lever.

Ex. VII.

A *windlass* and a *cogstan* in a ship, and a *crane* to draw up goods out of a ship or boat, may be referred to the wheel and axle.

Ex. III.

All *edge tools* and instruments with a *sharp point*, to cut, cleave, slit, chop, pierce, bore, &c. as *knives, hatchets, scissars, swords, bodkins, &c.* may be reduced to the wedge.

Ex. IV.

The *bar AB* bearing a weight *C*, may be referred to the lever, where the weight upon *A* : to the weight upon *B* :: is as *BC* : to *AC*.

Ex. V.

Likewise if two horses draw the weight *W*, in the directions *A 1, B 2*, by help of the *swingtree AB*; this may be referred to the lever, and the strength or force at *A* to that of *B* :: is as *BC* to *AC*.

Ex. VI.

ACB is a *balance*, where the brachia *AC, CB* being equal, the weights in the two scales *D, E* will be equal. The properties of a good balance are: 1. That the points of suspension of the scales, and the centre of motion of the beam, be in one right line. 2. That the brachia or arms be exactly of equal length from the centre of motion. 3. That they be as

B b 2

long

188. long as possible with conveniency. 4. That there be as little friction as possible in the motion. 5. That the centre of gravity of the beam be in, or but very little below, the centre of motion. 6. That they be in equilibrio when empty.

If one brachium AC be longer than the other CB , then the weight in the scale E must be greater than that in D , to make an equilibrium; and then you will have a deceitful balance, which being empty, or loaded with unequal weights, shall remain in equilibrio; for $AC : CB :: \text{weight in } E : \text{weight in } D$, by the property of the lever; but changing the weights from one scale to the other, will discover the deceit; for the balance will be no longer in equilibrio.

Ex. VII.

190. The steelyard AB is nothing but a lever whose fulcrum is C , the centre of motion; if the weight P placed at D reduces the beam AB to an equilibrium; and there be taken the equal divisions D_1, D_2, D_3, D_4 , &c. then the weight P placed successively at 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. will equi-ponderate with weights as W , suspended at B , which are also as the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. respectively. Moreover, if the divisions D_1, D_2, D_3 , &c. be each $= CB$; then if P be successively placed at 1, 2, 3, &c. the weight W to balance it, will be respectively equal to $P, 2P, 3P$, &c. that is to 1, 2, 3 pounds, &c. if P is a pound.

For by the property of the lever $CP \times P + CD \times P = CB \times W$, that is $PD \times P = CB \times W$; and $CB : PD :: P : W$, universally. Whence, if DP or $D_1 = CB$, then $W = P$. If DP or $D_2 = 2CB$, then $W = 2P$, &c. But if CB be greater than D_1, D_2 , &c. then will the constant weight P be greater than $W, 2W$, &c.

The properties necessary for a steelyard to have, are these:

1. That the fixed weight P being placed at D , where the divisions begin, shall make the beam in equilibrio.

2. That the divisions D_1, D_2, D_3 , &c. be equal to one another.

3. That CB may be of any length, provided the weight P be rightly adjusted to it: viz. so that $CB : D_1 :: P : 1$ pound, if W be pounds; or $CB : D_1 :: P : 1$ stone, if W be stones.

4. That the beam be straight, and the upper edge in a line with the centres C, B .

5. That it move easily and freely on its centre C .

Many

Many steelyards are likewise graduated on the under side, which may be used by turning them upside down; generally one side is for small weights, and the other for great ones; and each side is adjusted by the foregoing rules, and all the crooks hanging at it (except the moveable one for the weight) must go to the weight of the beam.

Ex. VIII.

Let AB be a *cheese-press*, CE , FG are levers moveable about the points D , E , F , G , by applying the hand at C , S the stone or weight. H the cheese.

If $CD=5$, $DE=2$, $FG=6$, $GH=2$, $FR=1$, $FH=4$, then in the lever CE , D is the fulcrum: call the power at C , 1 , then the force at E or F is $\frac{1}{5}$; and in the lever FG , whose fulcrum is G ; if the power at F be 1 , the force at R is $\frac{1}{6}$, therefore the power at C , to the weight S , is as 1 to $\frac{1}{5} \times \frac{1}{6}$ or 3 ; also the weight of the stone at R , to the pressure at H , as 2 to 5 , or 1 to $\frac{5}{2}$; and the power at C , is to the pressure at H , as 1 to $3 \times \frac{5}{2}$ or $7\frac{1}{2}$.

Ex. IX.

Let EG be a *spinning-wheel*; diameter of the rim $EF=18$; diameter of the twill $ab=2$; diameter of the whorle $cd=3$; $EabF$ the band going about the twill; $EcdF$ the band going about the whorle, therefore whilst the rim makes 1 revolution, the twill makes 9 , and the whorle and feathers 6 , therefore there are 3 revolutions of the twill, for 2 of the feathers n ; and consequently the difference of the revolutions, which is 1 , is the quantity taken up by the twill, whilst the thread tn is twined by these 2 revolutions of the feathers; the greater the difference of the revolutions of the twill and feathers, the more the wheel takes up; and the nearer an equality, the more she twines. If they make equal revolutions in the same time, she will not take up at all; and if the feathers make no revolutions, she will twine none. The greater the proportion of the rim, to the whorle and twill, the faster she will do both.

Ex. X.

A machine to raise a weight by the force of the running water IH , carrying the wheel LK , by means of the floats F , F . Let the diameter of the wheel LK be 10 ; of GB , 2 ; of DC ,

191. Let the power of the water against the floats AE be 3, then the force at B to move the wheel CD will be 5; again if the power at B be 1, the force at A will be 3. Therefore the force of the water to the weight W , is as 1 to 5×3 , or as 1 to 15.

When the wheels and axes and weight are so adjusted, that the velocity of the floats at F , is $\frac{1}{3}$ the velocity of the water there, then the weight W will have the greatest motion of ascent possible. For if any one thing be changed, whether the weight, or the diameter of any wheel or axle, whilst the rest remain the same, the motion will be lessened.

Ex. XI.

193. In the machine FB , which raises the weight W , by means of the wheel EG , and the perpetual screw BE , let the circumference described by the power C be 30 inches, the distance of two threads of the perpetual screw E , be 1 inch, diameter of the wheel $EG = 5$ feet; of $DA = 2$; therefore if the power at C be 1, the force acting at E to turn the wheel EG will be 30, and if the power at E be 1, the force at D will be $2\frac{1}{2}$, therefore the power at C , to the weight W ; is as 1 to $30 \times 2\frac{1}{2}$ or 1 to 75.

Note, it is the same thing whether CB be straight or crooked, whilst the distance BC , in a straight line, is the same, and in measuring, you must always take the straight line BC .

Ex. XII.

194. In a machine compounded of wheels to raise a weight, let $AB = 5$, diameter of the barrel $MN = 2$; the number of teeth in the wheels and nuts, as follow: $CD = 10$, $CE = 40$, $FG = 12$, $FH = 50$, $KI = 12$, $IL = 64$. Then the power applied to B , is to the weight W , as, $1 \times 10 \times 12 \times 12$ to $5 \times 40 \times 50 \times 64$; that is, as 1440 to 640000, or as 1 to 444 $\frac{2}{3}$.

But if the power was at W , to move the weight B , then the ratio will be inverted, for then the power will be to the force at B , as 444 to 1; or if the velocity of B was required, you will have the velocity of W to that of B , as 1 to 444.

Ex. XIII.

195. A machine to raise a weight by help of the triangle $ABEF$; the windlafs CC , and two pullies P , Q ; let the diameter HG

HG where the rope goes, be $= 2$, radius $CD = 5$, then if the power at D be 1, the force at H is 5, and if the force at H , drawn by one rope be 1, the force at W drawn by two ropes will be 2, therefore the power at D , to the weight W , is as 1 to 2×5 or 10; if the leg AB be wanting, the other two may be set against a wall, or upheld by ropes, and then it is called a pair of shears.

Ex. XIV.

If the weight A is to be lifted by the 3 pulleys, C, D, E , of 196. which C is fixt, call the power at B , 1, then the force stretching AE is 1, and both together is equal to the force of $DE = 2$, and force $DA = 2$, whence, force $DC = 4$, likewise force $CA = 4$, therefore the whole force acting at A is $1 + 2 + 4 = 7$, and the power at B to the weight A , as 1 to 7.

Ex. XV.

In this machine, $bACD$ is a running rope fixt at D , B a fixt pulley; let the power at b pulling the rope bA be 1, that on AC 1, and CD 1, then will AB be 2, and BC 2, BE 4, and the weight W opposing AC , BC and DC , will be $1 + 2 + 1 = 4$; whence the power at b to the weight W , is as 1 to 4.

Ex. XVI.

Another machine with pulleys. A a fixt pulley; the ends of the several ropes are fixt at B, C, D, E ; suppose the power at $M = 1$, then the force on AF, FB is 1; on FG, GC , 2; on GH, HD , 4; on HI, IE , 8; but the weight P acts against HI, IE , and is therefore $= 16$, and the power is to the weight, as 1 to 16.

S C H O L.

In a single pulley, as fig. 39. if a given power at P was to be a weight or heavy body, which was to raise some other weight W , there will be the greatest motion generated in W , in any given time, when $W = \frac{2}{3} P$.

And in a combination of pulleys, as fig. 42. if a weight P was to raise another weight W , and if, velocity of W : velocity of P : $\frac{2}{3} P : W$, then W will be the weight which will acquire the greatest motion in a given time, by that given power P .

Ex.

FIG.

Ex. XVII.

199.

Let DE be a *boat* rowed by oars, and let ABC be one oar; here the power acts at A , and the pin B will be the fulcrum, and the force at C , acting against the water, is that which gives her motion. Let the power at A be 1; then the force at C , by which the boat is moved, as $\frac{AB}{BC}$, whence the longer AB , or the shorter BC is, so much more power there is at A to move her forward.

Therefore long oars have the disadvantage of losing power, yet the oars may be too short, as well as too long; for if they be very short, the motion of the boat will allow little time to strike, and they will have but small force to act against the water with, in so small a time, as well as from the flow motion of the end C , which is a disadvantage on the other side.

Ex. XVIII.

200. Let FR be a *boat* or a *ship*, AS a *sail*; suppose a plumb-line drawn through the centre of gravity of the section of the ship and water, and another line BO , parallel to the horizon and to the axis or keel of the ship, and to pass through the centre of pressure or resistance of the ship, which she has by the water in her motion. Let this intersect the former plumb-line in O . Through C the centre of gravity of the sail, draw CD perpendicular to the sail, and CB perpendicular to BO , and AS in the plane of the triangle CBD .

Then if DC be the force of the wind against the sail AS , then DB is the force generating her progressive motion, and BC is the force lifting the ship upwards; now the force DB , acting at C , in direction DB , endeavours to turn the ship round an axis passing through O , with a force which is equal to the absolute force $BD \times$ by the distance CB , or $CB \times BD$, and this is the force by which her head is depressed; likewise the force BC , in direction BC , endeavours to turn the ship round an axis at O , the contrary way, and that with the force $BC \times$ distance BO , or $BC \times BO$, and this is the force that raises her head; therefore the force to raise her head is to the force to depress it, as $CB \times BO$ to $CB \times BD$, or as BO to BD .

Hence, if the point D fall before O , then the sail endeavours to raise the ship's head; if it be behind O , it endeavours to sink it; if it be in O , it will keep her steady. And the height
of

of the sail *AS* contributes nothing to her progressive motion, the same ratio of the absolute to the progressive force remains still as *CD* to *DB*.

Ex. XIX.

EF is a cart or carriage, *BD* a rub for the wheel *CAD* to pass over, *AB* the horizontal plane; *DB*, *AC* perpendicular, and *OD* parallel to *AB*; *C* the centre of the wheel; then the horizontal force required to pull the wheel over the rub *BD*, is as $\frac{DO}{CO}$.

And the difficulty of going over rubs increases in a greater ratio than that of their heights; also the higher the wheels, the more easily they pass over them; but then they are more apt to overturn. To draw the cart with the least power over the rub *BD*, it should not be drawn in the horizontal direction *AB* or *OD*, but in the direction *AD*. The advantage of high wheels is that they pass the rubs most easily, and they have also less friction, and sink less in the dirt, and more easily press down an obstacle; but their disadvantage is, that they easily overturn; they also make cattle draw too high; for they can apply their strength best when they draw low and upward, as in the direction *AD*, which is the advantage of low wheels; yet if the wheels are high they may be made to draw low, by fixing the limmers or traces as far below the axle as you will, which will then be an equal advantage with low wheels; for the power not pulling at the wheel, but at the carriage, may draw from any part of it. There is another advantage in small wheels, that they are better to turn with.

A waggon with 4 wheels is more advantageous than a cart with only 2 wheels, especially on sand, clay, &c. Narrow wheels and narrow plates are a disadvantage; the broader the wheels the less they sink, and therefore require less draught, and also cut the roads less; yet they take up a great deal of dirt, which clogs the carriage. There is a great deal of friction in all carriages, as is evident by the force required to draw them upon plain ground; and for that reason, experience can only inform us how much force is able to draw any carriage. To make the resistance as small as can be, axles of iron, running in brass boxes in the wheel naves, go the easiest.

The spokes in the wheel ought to be a little inclined outwards, that when a wheel sinks into a rut, the spokes (bearing then the greatest weight) may be nearly perpendicular to the horizon.

FIG. The underside of the axle-tree, where the wheels run, ought
 201. to be nearly in a right line; if they slant much upward towards
 the ends, the wheels will work against the linch-pin. Yet this
 causes the wheels to be further asunder at top than at bottom,
 in the rut, because the ends of the axle-tree are conical, which
 is an inconvenience.

Ex. XX.

202. Suppose the *waggon* FG is moved forward, by a power acting
 within it; which power turns the wheel DE by the spokes AD ,
 AD , &c. and DE turns the wheel IC which carries the waggon;
 let the power at A be 1, then the force acting at E will be
 $\frac{DA}{DE}$; also if the power at E be 1, the force at C , by which the
 waggon is moved, will be $\frac{BE}{BC}$; therefore the power at A , to
 the force by which the waggon can be moved, is as 1 to
 $\frac{DA \times BE}{DE \times BC}$; or the power is to that force, as $DE \times BC$ to
 $DA \times EB$. It will be the same thing, if instead of teeth, the
 wheel DE carries EB by a chain going round them. You must
 suppose the like wheels on the opposite side.

Hence if the absolute force to move the waggon without, be
 1, the force within, applied at A , to move it, will be $\frac{DE \times BC}{BE \times DA}$.

Ex. XXI.

203. $ABCD$ are the *sails* of a windmill, all alike inclined to their
 common axis, and facing the wind, and turning about in the
 order $ABCD$; WC the direction of the wind parallel to the axis
 EH . Since WC is perpendicular to EC , draw CF in the sail
 perpendicular to EC ; then the angle WCF will be the angle
 of incidence of the wind upon the sail; therefore the force of
 the wind to turn the sails about the axis EH , is as the square of
 the sine of the angle WCF $\times$ by its cosine; and the force act-
 ing against the mill, in direction of the axis EH , is as the cube
 of the sine of WCF . Now since the force of the wind to turn
 the sails round, is as $S.WCF \times \text{cos. } WCF$; therefore when
 that force is the greatest, the angle WCF will be $54^\circ : 44'$.

And

And this is the most advantageous position of the sails to move them from rest, and would always be so, if the wind struck them in the same angle when moving as when at rest; but by reason of the swift motion of the sails, especially near the end G , the wind strikes them under a far less angle; and not only so, but as the motion at the end G is so swift, it may strike them on the backside; therefore it will be more advantageous to make the angle of incidence WCF greater, and so much more as it is further from E ; therefore at the places n, o, G , the tangents of the angles ought to be nearly as the distances, En, Eo, EG ; and therefore the sails ought to be twisted, so as at r to lie more sharp to the wind, and at G almost to face it, and by that means they will avoid the back wind.

Ex. XXII.

GB is a common sucking pump; GKL the handle, CD the bucket, E, F two clacks opening upwards. When the end L is put down, the end G raises the sucker or bucket CD , and the valve or clack F shuts, and the water above the bucket being raised, the weight of the atmosphere is taken off the water underneath in the pump; then the pressure of the external air in the pit or well MN raises the water up the pump, opens the valve E , and ascends through the hole B into the body of the pump DB . Again, when the handle L is raised, the bucket CD descends, the valve F opens, and lets the water ascend through it, and the pressure of the water shuts the valve E , so that the water cannot return through B ; then whilst the end L is put down again, the sucker CD is raised again, together with the water above it, whilst more ascends through B . So that at every stroke of the handle water is raised into the pump, till at last it flows through the pipe H .

If the bucket CD be more than 30 or 32 feet from the surface of the water MN in the pit, no water will ascend above it, for the pressure of the atmosphere reaches no farther; therefore it must always be within that distance, or this pump is useless for raising water.

The weight of water which the bucket lifts at each stroke is that of a column of water whose height is MH , and its diameter that of the bore of the pump at CD where the bucket goes; therefore as GK to KL : : so the power applied at L to that weight; therefore it signifies nothing where the bucket is placed, as to the weight of water. If a leak happens in the barrel of the pump below the bucket CD , the air will get in and hinder the

working of the pump; if above CD , only some will be lost; therefore CD should be placed low; but then it will be bad to come at to repair it.

The bucket, sucker, or piston, is to be surrounded with leather to fit exactly, and must move freely up and down in the barrel, and also must exactly fill it. Of valves or clacks, some are flat, made of leather; others are conical; and they must all fit very close, and move freely. To balance the weight of water, the handle KL is commonly made heavy, as of iron, with a knob at the end L .

The bore of the pipe at B , should not be too straight; the wider it is, the more freely the water ascends, and the easier the pump works; likewise the longer stroke the pump makes, the more water is raised by the same power; there being less water lost by the valves shutting.

Calculation of a common pump.

Suppose LK 3 feet, KG 8 inches.

$b = HM$ the height from the water in yards:

Then the diameter of the bore at D will be $= \sqrt{\frac{100}{b}}$ inches.

And a single person will raise $\frac{80}{b}$ hogsheads of water in an hour.

In many pumps for common use it is not necessary to draw a great quantity of water, and then a smaller bore will serve, as 3 or 4 inches; which will make the pump go so much the lighter.

Ex. XXIII.

206. If a man sitting in the scale E be in equilibrio with a weight in the scale A ; and if he thrust against the beam CB , with a stick or otherwise, in direction ED , and by that means thrusts out the scale E to the position BE ; then the man in the scale E will over-balance the other scale A , and raise the weight; for let EL be perpendicular to FB , then the force at E to turn the scales is to the contrary force at F , as CL to CF or CB ; for it is the same thing as if E was suspended at L .

And when the perpendicular obstacle GH hinders the scale from going out, and the centre C is always kept steady; yet the scale E will still preponderate; for let ED be the force acting against D ; this is equivalent to the two forces EB , BD , acting at

at E , and D ; the force BD tending to or from the centre, does nothing, but the force EB at E , acting at the distance CB , its power to bring down the scale E is $CB \times BE$; and the same force acting at D , its power to push up the scale is $CD \times BE$, and their difference $DB \times BE$ is the absolute force to thrust down the scale; and this force is to the whole thrusting force DE , as DB to DE ; and if D were on the other side of C , the force would still be $DB \times BE$, or $CB + CD \times BE$. FIG. 205.

But if the scale E was not moveable about B , as if it were tied by the cord DE , then no force acting against any part of the beam FB , could have any effect to destroy the equilibrium.

Ex. XXIV.

Suppose a man A standing upon the plank CB , supported only at one end C , and pulling the end B towards him by the rope EB , in order to keep himself and the plank from falling. 207.

Imagine the man and the plank to be one body, then the action and re-action in direction EB , destroy one another, and his pulling does nothing; it would therefore be in vain for him to endeavour to support himself by that force, for both he and the plank must fall down together towards B , by their own weight.

Ex. XXV.

CD is a machine with two wheels fixed to an axis DF , round which goes a cord $GDFE$; there is a power at E endeavouring to draw the machine towards E , in a direction parallel to the horizon HO , by the cord EF , going under the axis DF ; in the radius AH of the wheel, take AB equal to the radius of the axle DF , towards H , because the string goes below it; then the force to move the machine is the same as if the string was fixed at B , where H is the fulcrum, A the weight; then the force to move the machine towards E , with the given power E , will be as BH ; therefore it would be in vain, by pulling at the string to endeavour to make the body roll towards D , the contrary way; but if DF was greater than the diameter of the wheel, that is, if B falls beyond H , then the force drawing towards E , would move the body towards D the contrary way. 208.

If the direction of the power DE be elevated above the horizon, as fe , then the machine could approach or recede, till the direction of the string ef fell upon the point of contact H , and there it would rest.

Ex.

Ex. XXVI.

FIG. 209. *AB* is an artificial kite, kept up by the wind blowing in direction *WC*, by drawing the string *AIBIH*, fixed at *A* and *B*. The kite will gain such a position, that *HI* produced will pass through the centre of gravity of its surface at *C*; draw *CO* perpendicular to *BA*, and *DO* perpendicular to the horizon *HO*, then *OC* is the direction of the force of the wind acting against the kite, and the force of the wind to keep her up, is as the square of the sine of the angle *ACW* or *COD*; now if *DO* represent the given weight of the kite, *CO* will be the force of the wind acting against her, and *CD* the force pulling at the string; the tail *EF* (with a bullet *F* at the end) being always blown from the wind, keeps her head always towards the wind.

As the direction of the thread always passes through *C*, therefore the angle *ACH*, and consequently *HCO*, will always be the same at all altitudes; and she can never ascend so high, till the angle of altitude *CHO* be equal to *ACH*, and hence it follows, that the lesser the angle *HCO* is made, the higher she will rise; and likewise the greater the wind is, or the lighter the kite, *ceteris paribus*, the higher she will rise.

210. After a like manner, a machine as *ab* may be contrived to keep at the top of a running water, being held by the string *de* tied to a stone and sunk to the bottom: *ab* is a thin board, *b* a piece of lead to sink the end *b*, but the whole must be lighter than water; *cd* an iron pin fixed at *C*; or the machine may have a loose tail at *b*, heavier than water, as in the kite.

Ex. XXVII.

211. If *AB* is a machine to be moved by a power acting at *C* out of the machine, in direction *DC*; *DF*, *GI* two levers within the machine, moveable about the two fixed fulcrums *E*, *H*.

Call the power at *C*, 1; then the force at *F* to move the lever *GI*, is $\frac{DF}{EF}$; then if the force at *F* be 1, that at the obstacle *I* out of the machine is $\frac{GH}{HI}$; therefore if the power at *C* be 1, the force acting against the obstacle at *I*, or which is the same thing, the force urging forward the machine towards *B*, is $\frac{DE \times GH}{EF \times HI}$. But the power at *C* draws back the machine with the force 1,

force 1, therefore the absolute force urging forward the machine is $\frac{DE \times GH}{EF \times HI} - 1$ or $\frac{DE \times GH - EF \times HI}{EF \times HI}$. 211.

Note, if the force at F be 1, the force against H is $\frac{FI}{HI}$; but this is not the force urging forward the machine, but to tear her in pieces, or to separate the fulcrums E, H , from one another.

If there had been three levers, and the power at D , the third, had been directed towards K , the way the machine goes, then the power 1 must be added to the force at I , and the whole is the force urging forward the machine.

Hence, if the absolute direct force to move the machine be 1, the power applied at D , which is able to move it, will be $\frac{EF \times HI}{DE \times GH - EF \times HI}$; but if the power at D act within the machine, this power could only be $\frac{EF \times HI}{DE \times GH}$ since there is then no force to be deducted for drawing back the machine.

Ex. XXVIII.

$DABH$ is a wooden bridge; AC, AD, AB, BH, BO , beams of timber, DE, EL, SR, RH , braces to strenghten the angles A, B ; the stress upon any of the angles is, *ceteris paribus*, so much greater, as the angle is greater; but the strength on any angle A , is as the perpendicular AP . 212.

Ex. XXIX.

AB a sailing chariot; $CDEF$ horizontal sails, so contrived that the sails D facing the wind may expand, and those going from the wind may contract; the sails are turned about by the wind coming from any coast; these sails turn the axis and trundle GH , and the trundle turns the wheel IL by the cogs in it; therefore the chariot may move in any direction. R is a rudder to steer with. 213.

Suppose the chariot to go against the wind; let D be the centre of pressure of the two sails C, D , the wind blows on, and let the power, (that is the force of the wind acting against the sails) be 1, then the force acting against the teeth in IL , is $\frac{GD}{OH}$; and this force being 1, the force at L is also 1; therefore

fore

FIG. 213. fore the power at D to the force at L , is as 1 to $\frac{GD}{OH}$; or as OH to GD . Now since the mast is strained by the power falling on the sails, therefore by this power OH , the chariot is urged backward, and by the force at L which is GD , it is urged forward. Let R be the force of the wind upon the body of the chariot, together with the friction in moving; therefore if GD is greater than the radius $OH + R$, the chariot will move forward against the wind; if less, backward; but if they be equal, it will stand still.

Ex. XXX.

214. FG a chariot or waggon to sail against the wind. S the sails of a windmill, turning in the order, 1, 2, 3; as the sails go round, the pinion A moves B , and the trundle C moves D , which has both teeth and cogs; D by its teeth moves E , and the trundle E fixt to the axle-tree carries round the wheels H, I , which move the waggon in direction HG .

The sails are set at an angle of 45° , so the force to turn them, and the force in direction of the axis, will be equal; this waggon will always go against the wind, provided you give the sails power enough, by the combination of the wheels, but then her motion will be so much slower.

Ex. XXXI.

215. Let AB be part of a rope; $cd, cd, \&c.$ the particular strands running about in a spiral manner; let FH be the axis of the rope, the angle GFH or HFK the obliquity of the strands, draw KH, GH parallel to FG, FK , and draw GEK ; then the tension of the rope in direction HF , is to the strefs on all the strands in direction FG , as FH to $FG + FK$ or $FG + GH$; that is, as EF to FG , therefore the absolute force by which the rope is stretched, is to the strain or strefs upon all the strands, or upon the twisted rope, as FE is to FG , and so is the length of any part of the rope, to the correspondent length of a strand.

Hence ropes the least twisted are strongest and bear the most weight, and the harder they are twisted the sooner they will break; and for the same reason, if they be double twisted, they will be weaker still. But as it is very difficult to make all the fibres pull equally without twisting, and impossible to make a rope hold together without it; therefore it is necessary,
it

it have as much as to prevent the fibres from drawing out, FIG. and a small degree will not much impair its strength. A rope 215. consisting of several strands, is thicker when twisted than when untwisted.

Ex. XXXII.

ABC a syphon or crane. If the shorter end *AB* be immersed 216. in a vessel of water *AD*, then by applying the mouth to the end *C*, and sucking till the water comes, it will continue to flow out at the end *C*, as long as that end is lower than the surface of the water at *D*. If there be a mouth-piece at *E*, then sucking at *E* (whilst the end *C* is stopt with the finger) will make the water flow, when the finger is taken off; and when the water is begun to flow, the hole at *E* should be stopt up, or else the water will flow no longer than till the surface at *D* be as low as *E*.

The reason of its flowing is this: the perpendicular height of the column of water *BC* being greater than that of *BD*, the pressure at *C* is greater than at *D*; and the pressure of the atmosphere being the same at *D* and *C*, therefore the greater weight at *C* will make it flow out there, whilst the pressure of the atmosphere at *D* forces more water up the tube *DB*, and so keeps it continually running as long as there is any water, and the end *C* continues lower than the surface at *D*; but if *C* is higher than *D*, the water will return back into *BD*; but if the height *DB* exceed the pressure of the atmosphere, which is 30 or 32 feet, then it cannot be made to flow out at the end *C*; or if there be a hole in the syphon higher than the surface at *D*, the air will get in, and the water will return through *BD*; or if the syphon be very wide, the air will insinuate itself into the end *C*, between the water and the tube, which will hinder it from running; to prevent which the end *C* may be immersed into another vessel of water lower than the surface at *D*. If the ends of the syphon be turned up, as *F, G*, then the water will remain in the syphon after it has done working, which in the other will all run out.

Ex. XXXIII.

CDLF a vessel of water; *AB* a tube open at both ends, and 217. about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter; *AE* a quantity of mercury put into the tube; then stopping the end *B*, let the other end *A* be immersed deep enough in the water; then opening the end *B*, the mercury will sink so deep in the tube, till the height of
D d the

FIG. the water *AB* be 14 times the height of the mercury *AE*, and
217. then the mercury will be at rest.

For the specific gravities of water and mercury being 1 and 14, the column of water *AB* will be equal in weight with the column of mercury *AE*; therefore the pressures at *A* being equal they will sustain one another.

Ex. XXXIV.

218. *A, B*, are two *barometers*; *ed* is a tube, its bore $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter, at least, close at top, and communicating with the vessel *C*, with mercury in it; *C* is open to the external air. The use of this instrument is to shew the weight of the atmosphere, and its variations. This tube, and vessel with mercury, is put into a frame, and hung perpendicular; near the top of the tube is placed a scale of inches, by which the height of the mercury in the tube is known, and likewise a scale for the weather; at the top of the tube above the mercury is a vacuum. Now the atmosphere pressing upon the surface of the mercury at *C*, keeps the mercury suspended at the height *d* in the tube, which therefore will be higher or lower according to the weight of the atmosphere. The height of the mercury in the tube is generally 28, 29, or 30 inches; seldom more. If any air get into the tube it spoils the machine. Lest the quicksilver stick to the glass, it is good to drum a little with the fingers upon it, in making any observation.

Rules for observation of the weather.

1. The rising of the mercury presages fair weather. It rises and stands highest in serene, sunshiny, drougthy weather; and in calm frosty weather it generally stands high. In thick foggy weather it often rises.

2. The falling of the mercury denotes foul weather. It generally falls or stands low in rainy, windy, or snowy weather.

3. In windy weather the mercury sinks lowest of all, and rises fast after storms of wind.

4. In very hot weather the falling of the mercury foretells thunder.

5. In winter the rising foretells frost, and falling in frosty weather foretells thaw.

6. In continual frost the rising presages snow; at other times it generally falls in snowy weather.

7. When

7. When the mercury rises after rain expect settled serenity; *FIG.*
if it descends after rain expect broken showery weather. 218.

8. When foul weather happens soon after the falling of the mercury, or fair weather after its rising, expect but little of it.

9. In foul weather, rising fast and high, and continuing so 2 or 3 days before the foul weather be quite over, expect a continuance of fair weather to follow.

10. In fair weather falling fast and low, and continuing 2 or 3 days before the rain comes, expect a great deal of wet, and probably high winds.

11. Unsettled motion of the mercury denotes unsettled weather.

12. The greatest height of the mercury is upon easterly and north-easterly winds.

13. The alterations are greater in northerly parts than in the more southerly, and there is little or no variation within the tropics.

Ex. XXXV.

ABE is an artificial fountain; *A* is an open vessel, *B* a close 219.
one; *E* may be made close by stopping the hole *C*; these vessels all communicate by the tubes *F, G*; the tube *F* reaches near the top of *E*, and the tube *G* near the bottom of *B*; pour water into *C* almost to the top of the pipe *F*, and stop the hole *C*; then pour water into *A*, which will run down into *B*; then open the cock *D*, and the water will spout up to the height of *AB* above *D*; for the air in *B, F, E* is condensed by the weight of the column of water *AB*, and its pressure on the water in *C*, is equal to the weight of that column, and will therefore make the water spout to that height above the water in *C*, nearly; but the pipe leading to *D* must be turned curve.

Ex. XXXVI.

AB is a dart or an arrow; at *A* 3 or 4 feathers are placed 220.
nearly in planes passing through the arrow. If the feathers were exactly in this plane, the air could not strike against the feathers when the arrow is in motion: but since they are not set perfectly straight, but always a little aslant, whilst the arrow moves forward, the air strikes the slant sides of the feathers; by which force the feathers are turned round, and with the feathers the arrow or reed; so there is generated a motion about the axis of the arrow, which motion will be swifter as they stand more aslant. This motion is like the motion of the

FIG. sails and axle of a windmill, turned round by the wind. The head *B* is made of lead or iron, and will therefore go foremost in the air, and the feathered end *A* the hindmost, as being lighter. An arrow will fly about 60 yards in a second.

Ex. XXXVII.

221. *AB* is a vessel which keeps its liquor till filled to a certain height, and if filled higher lets it all run out; *EHG* is a crooked pipe or crane open at both ends. If water be poured into the vessel, it will continue in it till it rises above *E*, and ascend to the same height in the pipe *EH*; but rising above *E*, the pressure at *E* will make it run out through the pipe *EHG*, till the surface of the fluid descend as low as *E*. This is sometimes called *Tantalus's cup*. The funnel *EHG* may be put in the handle of this cup, which will look neater.

Ex. XXXVIII.

222. *BC*, *CG* are two bones of an animal, moveable about the joint *FK*, by help of the muscle *KD*; the joints of animals are either spherical or circular, and the cavity they move in is accordingly either spherical or circular; and the center of motion is in the centre of the sphere or circle, as at *C*. Let *W* be a weight hanging at *B*, and draw *CP*, *CK* perpendicular to *BW*, *KD*; then if the weight *W* be suspended by the strength of the muscle *KD*; it will be as $CK : PC :: W : \text{tension of the muscle } KD$.

The bone *BC* is moved about the joint *FK*, by the strength of the muscle *KD*; for when the muscle is contracted, the point *K* is moved towards *D*, and the end *B* towards *E*, about the immoveable centre of motion *C*. The strength of the muscles is surprisngly great.

Borelli (in his book, *de Motu Animalium*, Part I. Prop. XXII.) computes the force of the muscles to bend the arm at the elbow, and says, a strong young fellow can sustain at arm's end, a weight of 28 lb. taking in the weight of the arm; and he finds the length of *CB* to *CK* to be in a greater proportion than that of 20 to 1; whence he infers the strength of these muscles to be so great as to bear a stretch at least of 560 lb.

It is evident that all animal bodies are machines; for what are the bones but levers, moved by a certain power placed in the muscles, which act as so many ropes, pulling at the bones, and moving them about the joints; every joint representing the

the fulcrum or centre of motion. What are all the vessels but FIG.
tubes which contain fluids of different sorts, destined for the 222.
use or motion of the several parts of the machine? and which
by opening or shutting certain valves, let out or retain their
contents as occasion requires, or convey them to distant places,
by other tubes communicating therewith; and therefore all
these motions of an animal body, are subject to the general laws
of mechanics.

Ex. XXXIX.

The motion of a *man*, walking, running, &c. will easily be 223.
accounted for. Let us first suppose a man sitting in a chair;
he cannot rise from his seat, till by thrusting his head and body
forward, and his feet and legs backward, the line of direction,
or the perpendicular from the centre of gravity, pass through
his feet, as the base; likewise when we stand upon our feet,
the line of direction must fall between our feet, otherwise we
cannot stand, but must fall down towards the side the centre of
gravity lies on: and when a man stands firm upon his feet,
his legs make an isocles triangle, the centre of gravity lying
between them; and then he is not supported by the strength
of the muscles, but by the bones of the legs and thighs, which
then stand in a right line with one another.

When a man *AC* endeavours to walk, he firsts extends his
hindmost leg and foot *S* almost to a right line, and at the same
time bends a little, the knee *H* of his fore leg; thus his hind
leg is lengthened, and his fore leg shortened; by this means
his body is moved forward, till the centre of gravity *V* falls
beyond the fore foot *B*; and then being ready to fall, he pre-
sently prevents it, by taking up the hind foot, and by bending
the joints of the hip, knee, and ankle, and suddenly translating,
it forward to *T*, beyond the centre of gravity; and thus he
gains a new station. After the same manner, by extending the
foot and leg *HB*, and thrusting forward the centre of gravity
beyond the foot *S*, and then translating the foot *B* forward,
he gains a third station; and thus is walking continued at
pleasure.

His two feet do not go in one right line, but in two lines
parallel to one another; therefore a man walking has a libra-
tory motion, from one side to the other; and it is not possible
to walk in a right line.

Walking on plain ground is easy, pleasant, and performed
with little labour; but in going up hill is very laborious, by
reason of the great flexure of the joints required to ascend, and
their

FIG. their suffering more stress from the weight of the body in that position. Descending down hill is, for the same reason, more laborious than walking on plain ground, but not so bad as ascending.

The walking of birds is not unlike that of men, only their weight is intirely supported by the strength of the muscles, since their joints are always bent; also their feet go in two parallel lines.

A man in walking always sets down one foot before the other be taken up, and therefore at every step he has both feet upon the ground; but in running he never sets one down till the other be up; so that at each step he has but one foot upon the ground, and all the intermediate time, none. A good footman will run 400 yards in a minute.

Ex. XL.

224. When a *beast* stands, the line of gravity must fall within the quadrilateral made by his 4 feet; and when he walks,, he has always 3 feet on the ground, and one up. Suppose he first takes up the hind foot *C*; before he does this, by extending his leg backwards, he thrusts forward his body and the centre of gravity, then taking up the foot *C* he moves it forward to *F*; then he immediately takes up the fore foot *B* on the same side, and carries it to *H*; then he takes up the hind foot *D*, and translates it forward; and then the fore foot *A*; then *F* again; and so on.

When he trots, he takes up two together, and sets down two together, diagonally opposite.

When he gallops, he takes up his feet one by one, and sets them down one by one; though some animals strike with the two fore feet nearly at once, and the two hind feet near at once, and have not above two feet on the ground at once. A good horse will run half a mile in a minute.

Animals with 6 or more feet, take up the hindmost first; then the next, and then the next in order, to the foremost, all on one side; and after that, all the feet on the other side in the same order, beginning at the last. If they were to take up the foremost first, the animals would move backward.

Ex. XLI.

225. *AD* is a *bird* flying in the air, by help of the wings *F*, *T*, and the tail *C*. The structure of their wings is such, that in striking

striking downward, they expand to their greatest breadth, and become almost two planes, being something hollow on the under side; and these planes are not then horizontal, but inclined, so that the back part *K* is higher than the fore part *DFG*; but in moving the wings upward to fetch a new stroke, they go with the edge *DFG* foremost, and the wings contract and become hollow; their bodies are specifically lighter than men or beasts; their bones and feathers are extremely porous, hollow, and light; the muscles by which their wings are moved downwards, are exceeding large, being not less than a sixth of the weight of the whole body. When a bird is upon the ground and intends to fly, he takes a large leap, and stretching his wings right from his body, he strikes them downwards with great force, by which they are put into an oblique position; and the resistance of the air acting strongly against them by the stroke, impels them, and the bird, in a direction perpendicular to their planes; which is in an oblique direction, or partly upwards and partly horizontally forward; the part of the force tending upwards is destroyed by the weight of the bird; the horizontal force serves to carry him forward; the stroke being over, he moves his wings upwards, which being contracted, and turning their edges upward, they cut through the air without any resistance, and being sufficiently elevated, he takes a second stroke downwards, and the impulse of the air moves him forwards, as before; and so from one stroke to another, which are only like so many leaps taken in the air. When he has a mind to turn to the right or left, he strikes strongly with the opposite wing, which impels him to the contrary side. The tail acts like the rudder of a ship, except only that it moves them upwards or downwards instead of sideways, because its plane is horizontal. If a bird wants to rise, he puts his tail into the position *LH*; or if he would fall, into the position *LI*; whilst it is in the horizontal position *LC*, it keeps him steady. A bird can by spreading his wings continue to move horizontally for some time, without striking; for having acquired a sufficient velocity by keeping his wings parallel to the horizon, they meet with no resistance; and when he begins to fall by his weight, he can easily steer himself upward by his tail, till his motion be almost spent, and then he must renew it by two or three more strokes of his wings; when he alights, he expands his wings and tail full against the air, that they may meet with all the resistance possible. The centre of gravity of a bird is something behind the wings, to remedy which,

FIG.
225.

FIG. which, they thrust out their head and neck, in flying, which carries the centre of gravity more forward.

225. It is impossible that ever men can fly, by the strength of their arms; for their pectoral muscles are vastly too weak to support such a weight; for in a man, they are not the 60th part of the rest of the muscles of the body; but in a bird they are more than all the others put together.

Some birds will fly 1000 yards in a minute.

Ex. XLII.

226. *AB* is a fish swimming, which he does by help of his fins and tail. A fish is nearly of the same specific gravity as water; and most fish have a bladder *L*, which they can expand or contract, and so make themselves lighter or heavier than water, in order to rise or fall in it. The muscular force by which the tail is moved, is very great: the direct motion of a fish is by means of his tail *BCD*, moving from one side to the other, with a vibrating motion, which he performs thus: suppose his tail in the position *FG*, being about to move it successively to *H*, *I* and *K*, he turns the end *G* oblique to the water, which being moved swiftly through it, in that position, the resistance of the water acts obliquely against his tail, and moves him partly forward and partly laterally. The lateral motion is corrected the next stroke, the contrary way; but the progressive motion is continued always forward. When his tail is arrived at *K*, he turns its obliquity the contrary way, that in moving back to *G*, it may strike the water in the same manner as before; and thus he makes one stroke after another, and moves forward thereby as far as he pleases. The oblique position of his tail is mostly owing to the elasticity of his tail, which by bending, is put into that form by the resistance of the water; they can exert a very great force with their tail, and which is necessary to overcome the resistance which their bodies meet with in the water. By help of the tail they also turn to one side; by striking strongly with it on that side; and keeping it bent, which then acts like the rudder of a ship. The fins of a fish serve to keep him upright, especially the belly fins *E*, which act like two feet; without them he would swim with his belly up, for his centre of gravity lies near his back. His fins also help him to ascend or descend, by expanding or contracting them, as he can with pleasure, and so putting them in a proper position. His tail will also help him to rise and fall, by inclining it obliquely, and turning it a little, from an erect position,

tion, to one side. Fish can swim but slow, yet some of them FIG.
will swim 70 or 80 yards in a minute, but they soon tire. 226.

Brutes can swim naturally, for they are specifically lighter than water, and require to have but a small part of their head out for breathing; also they naturally use their legs in swimming after the same manner as they do in walking.

Birds swim very easily, being much lighter than water, and readily move themselves along with their web feet.

Men cannot swim naturally, though they are specifically lighter than water; for their heads are very large, and require to be almost all out of the water for breathing; and their way of striking has no relation to that of walking. Men attain the art of swimming by practice and industry; and this art consists in striking alternately with the hands and feet in the water, which like oars, will row him forward. When he strikes with his hands he neither keeps the palms parallel nor perpendicular to the horizon, but inclined; and his hands striking the water obliquely, the resistance of the water moves him partly upward and partly forward. Whilst his hands are striking he gradually draws up his feet, and when the stroke of his arms is over he strikes with his feet, by extending his legs and thrusting the soles of his feet full against the water; and while he strikes with his legs he brings about his arms for a new stroke, and so on alternately. He must keep his body a little oblique, that he may more easily erect his head, and keep his mouth above water.

After the same manner may the motions, velocities, powers, and properties of any machine be explained and accounted for, by mechanical principles. I shall proceed to lay down a short description of several other machines, without being so particular in the calculation of their powers and forces; the mechanism of which being understood, will assist the invention of the practical mechanic, in contriving a machine for any use.

Ex. XLIII.

AB a machine to raise a weight, and stay it in any position, 227.
CD a roller turned by the handle *E*; to the roller is fixed the ratchet wheel *F*; *GH* is a catch made of metal, moveable about *H*, and forked at the end *G*, where it falls into the teeth of the wheel *F*. As the roller is turned the weight is raised by the rope *IKL*, and the catch *G* slides freely over the teeth of the wheel, till the machine is stopped, and then the catch *G* falling
E c in

FIG. in between the teeth, keeps the wheel fixed there, that it cannot
227. turn back again with the weight.

Ex. XLIV.

228. *KI* is a machine to raise or depress the lever *GH*, moveable about an axis at *H*, and to keep it at any position; *bf* a string fixed at *f* and *a*, and going in the order *abcdef*, through the holes *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, of the runner *IK*, which being put up or down, raises or lowers the beam *GH* at pleasure; and more or fewer holes may be made in the piece *IK*, as occasion requires.

Ex. XLV.

229. *CD* another machine to stay a weight in any position. This is only a cylinder of wood, upon which is cut a channel for the rope to go in. If the weight *B* be lifted up, and *A* pulled down, then *B* will remain in any given position, by the friction of the cylinder and rope; and there may be taken as many turns of the rope about the cylinder, as there is occasion for.

Ex. XLVI.

330. *C* is a clock-weight carrying the two wheels *A* and *B*, *D* the counterpoise, *F* a pulley, *ADBFA* an endless cord; when the weight is down, draw the cord *G* till the weight *C* rise to the top; then the catch *e* keeps the wheel *A* from turning backwards. This may be serviceable for other uses besides moving a clock.

Ex. XLVII.

231. *ADB* a machine for reckoning the number of strokes or vibrations made, *DH* is a wheel moving about a fixed axis, upon the neck of which axis goes a brass spring *L*, to keep the wheel from shaking; *AB* a piece of wood or metal, cut away between *I* and *K* to receive the wheel: the plane of the piece *AIKB* is perpendicular to the plane of the wheel; *FG* are two staples, to guide the motion of the piece *AB* back and forward. When the piece *AB* is moved from *A* towards *B*, the edge at *I* catches the tooth *C*, and sliding along the edge, moves the wheel about in direction *CD*; this brings the tooth *E* to the edge *K*; and when the piece *AB* is moved back from *B* to *A*, the edge at *K* sliding down the tooth *E*, moves the wheel from

from *E* towards *H*, which brings another tooth before the edge *FIG.*
I; so that at every motion of *AB* back and forward, the wheel 231.
 is moved the breadth of one tooth; and if the teeth be num-
 bered, the index *M* will shew when the wheel has made one
 revolution.

Ex. XLVIII.

ABED a machine moving one circle within another, concen- 232.
 trical to it. *ABC* represents a flat ring of brass, and *abc* a
 smaller concentric ring lodged in a circular groove, turned
 within the larger, and kept in the groove by three small plates
 of brass, *A, B, C*, fixed to the outward ring, and reaching over
 the edge of the inner one; upon the inner ring is fixed a con-
 centric arch of a wheel *de*, having teeth in it, which are driven
 round by the threads of an endless screw *DF*, turning in a collar
 at *E*, and upon a point at *F*, both fixed to the outward ring.
 By this mechanism, any point of the circle *abc* may be set to a
 given point of the circle *ABF*, by turning the screw *DEF*.

Ex. XLIX.

ABE is a crane for hoisting goods up; *AF* is a double wheel, 233.
 within which a man walks, and by his weight raises the weight
W, by help of the rope *FBEW*, which goes round the axis of
 the wheel at *F*. At *D* are two pulleys, one vertical and one
 horizontal; the vertical pulley facilitates the motion of the rope
 in hoisting the weight, and the horizontal one serves for the
 rope to run on, when the crane *CDE* and weight *W* are drawn
 aside by the rope *GH*, in order to be lowered; *CDE* moves
 about the axis *BC*. At *E* is another pulley for the rope to
 run on. If the rope *FBEI* go about a pulley at *I*, and be fixed
 with its end at *E*, the crane will lift twice the weight.

Ex. L.

AB a sailing chariot. This is driven by the wind, by help of 234.
 the sails *C, D*. *R* is the rudder. The wheels must be set at a
 greater distance, or the axle-tree made longer, than in common
 chariots, to prevent overturning. Sailing chariots are proper
 for large plains and champaign countries, and are said to be
 frequent in *China*.

Ex. LI.

- FIG. *BF* is a sucker-jack. *AD* is a horizontal wheel, wherein the wings or fails are inclined to the horizon; the smoke or rarefied air moving up the chimney at *B*, strikes these fails, which being oblique, are therefore moved about the axis of the wheel, together with the pinion *C*, of 6 leaves; *C* carries the toothed wheel *D* of 120 teeth, all these are of iron; *E* a wooden wheel 4 or 5 inches diameter; this carries the chain or rope *F*, which turns the spit. The wheel *AB* must be placed in the straight part of the chimney, where the motion of the air is swiftest, and that the greatest part of it may strike upon the fails. The force of this machine is so much greater as the fire is greater. The fails *B* are of tin, 6 or 8 in number, placed at an angle of $54\frac{1}{2}$ degrees.

Ex. LII.

236. An engine to make a hammer strike. *W* the water wheel, 7 or 8 yards diameter; *D, D*, the floats; *BC* the axle, 3 or 4 feet diameter; *H* the hammer, 3 or 4 hundred weight, moveable about the axis *O, P*; *I, K* four cogs in the axis, lifting up the hammer as the axis goes round, that it may fall on the anvil *A*; *FG* a beam of wood acting as a spring, to give the greater force to the hammer; *MN* the course of the water down an inclined plane; *M* the place where it issues out; *LM* the perpendicular height of the water, 3 yards. All the machine except the water wheel is within the house.
237. A hammer may also be made to strike thus; *A* is the hammer moveable about the point *C*; *G* the axle of a water wheel, in which axis are the pins *F, E, &c.* As the wheel and axle go about from *F* towards *E*, the pins *F, E* thrust down the end *B*, and raise the end of *A* of the hammer; and when the *B* goes off the pin the hammer falls upon the anvil *D*.

Ex. LIII.

238. *II* a crooked axis or elbow for the suckers of pumps; *IK* the pestle or chain of the sucker; upon the axis is the lantern *EF*, which is turned by a great wheel, carried either by water, or men or horses; the pestles *IK* rise and fall alternately, as the lantern *EF* goes about, and each gives one stroke of the pump for one turn of the lantern. Place pullies or rolls *a, b, c, d*, for the chain *IK* to work against, when it goes out of its perpendicular

dicular position, by the obliquity of the motion of the cranks *F I C.*
I, I. 238.

Ex. LIV.

ABCD a particular combination of *pullies*; *T, T, T* are posts 239.
 to which the tackles are fixed; *S, S, S* are stays to keep them
 erect. If the power at *A* be 1, that at *B* is 3, at *C* 9, and at
D 27, where the weight is placed.

Ex. LV.

A, B are two *bellows* going by water, and blowing alternately, 240.
 but neither of them with a continual blast; *W* the water wheel;
DE the direction of the water; *FG* the axis of the wheel; *a, a,*
&c. 4 cogs of wood in the axis, forcing down the end of the
 bellows *A*; *bb, &c.* 4 cogs forcing down the end of the bellows
B; *LM, NI* two rods of iron, fastened to the bellows and to
 the lever *MN*, and moveable about the pins *M, N*; *SP* a
 piece of timber moveable about *S* and *P*; *OP* a beam serving
 for a spring, lying over the piece of timber *QR*. As the wheel
 and axle turns round a cog *b* forces down the end of the bel-
 lows *B*, and makes it blow; this pulls down the end *N* and
 raises the end *M* of the lever *MN*, which raises the bellows *A*;
 and when the cog *b* goes off, the bellows *B* cease blowing, and
 a cog *a* forces down the bellows *A*, and makes it blow, and at
 the same time raises the bellows *B*; and thus the cogs *a, b* al-
 ternately force down the bellows *A, B* and make them blow in
 their turns; *H* is the hearth or fire.

A pair of bellows may be moved by water thus; *A* is a water 241.
 wheel, carried by the water at *W*; *CD* a rod of iron going
 on the crooked axle-tree of the wheel; *DF* a lever moveable
 about *E*; *FG* a chain going to the bellows *B*; *I* a weight. As
 the wheel goes about, the ends *D* and *F* of the lever *DF* rise
 and fall, which motion raises the bellows, and the weight *I* car-
 ries them down again.

Ex. LVI.

AB is a wheel with teeth, and a *roller* to draw up any weight; 242.
H, H, H the handles, which may be wrought by two or three
 men.

But the easiest and simplest rollers for common use are such 243.
 as *C* and *D*. In these, as 30lb. is to the weight to be raised, so 244.
 must

FIG. must the radius of the axle be to the length of the handle, for a man to work it.

30. If a given weight P raises another weight W , on such a machine as fig. 30, it will generate the greatest motion possible in a given time, when the diameters AB , EF , and weight W are of such quantities, that $W = \frac{2P \times AB}{EF}$, or when $EF = \frac{2AF \times P}{W}$.

For then the motion will be greater than if any one (H , AB , or EF) be altered, the rest remaining the same.

36. And in such a machine as fig. 36, the greatest motion will be generated in W ; if you make as velocity of W : velocity of P :: as $\frac{2}{3}P$: to W .

Ex. LVII.

[245. An engine to drive piles; A the rammer, drawn up by the rope BCD going over the pulley C ; DN , DN several small ropes for several men to pull at; M the pile; EF a brace and ladder to go up. The rammer A is bound at bottom with iron, lest it split, and has two tenons on the backside to keep it in the grooves, made in the upright puncheons G , H , by which its motion is directed. The rammer is raised to the top by men pulling at the ropes DN , and then letting go, all at once, it falls upon the head of the pile M .

Old piles are drawn out by striking gently upon their heads whilst they are pulled by a strong rope stretched.

Ex. LVIII.

246. ACL a pair of smith's bellows; AL , BL , CL are three boards, the middle board BL divides the internal space into two parts; in the middle board is a valve S opening into the upper part, and in the lowest board is another valve T opening into the under part; the pipe P communicates only with the upper cavity; DE a lever moveable about the axis GH ; at I a weight is laid upon the upper board to make it fall; the bellows is fixed in the frame MK by two iron pins, which are fast in the middle board, and the pipe P lies upon the hearth. When the end E is pulled down by the rope EF , the end D is raised, and the rope or chain DR raises the lower board CL ; this shuts the valve T and opens S , and the air is forced into the upper cavity, which raises the upper board, and blows through the pipe P ; and when E is raised, the boards A and C descend, and the valve S shuts and T opens, and the weight I forces the

the air still out of the pipe, whilst more air enters in at the valve *F I G.* *T*, which, when *C* ascends, is forced again through the valve *S* 246. as before; and thus the belows have a continual blast.

Ex. LIX.

An engine to raise water. *LMOI* a great horizontal wheel; 247. *ABP* the axis, *P* the pivot or spindle it turns upon; *OQI* the waves of the great wheel; *QR* a small wheel perpendicular to the horizon, and placed under the edge of the great wheel; this wheel is moveable about the centre *C*, in the end of the lever *EFC*, which is moveable about the centre *D*; *EF* the arch of a circle, whose plane is perpendicular to the horizon, and in the plane of the wheel *QR*; *EG* the chain of a pump.

Whilst the great wheel is turned by the lever *NA* from *O* towards *I*, the wave *Q* presses down the wheel *QR* and raises the end *E*, which draws up the water in the pump *G*; but when the deepest part of the wave is past the wheel *QR*, the wheel then rises into the hollow *S*, and then the chain *EG* descends till the next wave raises it again; and thus every wave makes a stroke of the pump.

The wheel *QR* is placed there only to avoid friction, and so that a perpendicular to its plane may pass through *AB*. If the number of waves be odd, and another pump wheel and lever be placed diametrically opposite on the other side of the great wheel, then these acting by turns will keep the motion uniform, and the power at *N* will always act equally.

Ex. LX.

BFG a capstan, to draw great weights. *BC* the axis, which 248. is driven about by men acting at *A, A*, by help of the levers *AB, AB*; here must only be 3 or 4 spires of the rope *DCE* folded about the axis *BC*, for the axis could not hold so much rope as there is sometimes occasion for; and to hinder the rope from slipping back a man constantly pulls at *E* to keep it tight; and the axis made conical, or rather angular, at the bottom *C*, to keep the rope from going any lower whilst the capstan goes about.

Ex. LXI.

AL is a jack to lift great weights; *E* is a pinion upon the axis 249. *FG, GC* a toothed wheel, and *D* a pinion upon the same axis, working

FIG. working in the teeth of the rack *AB*; the whole is inclosed in
 249. a strong case *KL*, all of metal; the handle *GHI* goes on the axis *FG* on the backside of the case.

When a weight is to be lifted the forked end *A* is put under the weight, then turning the handle *HI*, the pinion *E* moves the wheel *GC*, with the pinion *D*, and *D* raises the rack *AB* with the weight.

Ex. LXII.

250. An engine to raise and let fall two weights with contrary motions successively, whilst the moving power acts always one way. *GH* a great horizontal wheel; *N, M* two lanterns so placed on the axis *AB* that the great weight can only work one of them at once. When the cog wheel *GH* is turned by the lever *LI*, it turns the lantern *M* and raises the bucket *E*, whilst *F* descends; then *E* being raised, move forward the axis *AB*, that the lantern *M* may leave the wheel, and *N* come to it; then the great wheel moving the same way as before will now work upon *N*, and turn the axis the contrary way, and raise the bucket *F* whilst *E* descends; which done, move the axis back towards *A*, and you will again raise the bucket *E*; and so on.

This may also be performed by placing the lanterns *M, N* so that the great wheel may work them both at once, by making them moveable about the axis *AB*; then there must be a pin to fasten either of them to the axis, so that first one lantern and then the other being thus fixed to the axis, whilst the other is loose, the buckets *E, F* will ascend and descend alternately.

Ex. LXIII.

251. A mill for iron work. *AB* the flitting mill; *CD* the plate mill; *SP* the clipping mill; *E, F* are two great water wheels. After the water is past the wheel *E*, moving in direction *QW*, it comes about to the wheel *F*, in direction *XY*; the water wheel *E*, with the lantern *G* on the same axis, carries the spur wheels *M* and *H*, with the cylinders *B* and *D*; and the wheel *F* with the lantern *I*, carries the wheels *N* and *K*, with the cylinders *A* and *C*; the cylinders *A* and *B*, as also *C* and *D*, run contrary ways about; and the cylinders *A* and *B* are cut into teeth for flitting iron bars; *C, D* are 8 inches diameter, *A* and *B* about 12; and these cylinders may be taken out and others put in, and may be brought nearer to, or farther from,
 one

one another, by help of screws, which screw up the sockets *FIG.* where the axles run. The axles of *N, I, K* lie all in one horizontal plane; and so does *M, G, H*; but the cylinders *A, B*, and also *C, D*, lie one above another. 251.

For making the plates; if a bar of iron be heated and made thin at the end, and that end put in between the cylinder *C, D*, whilst the mill is going, the motion of the cylinders draws it through, on the other side, into a thin plate; likewise a bar of iron, being heated and thinned at the end, and put in between the toothed cylinders *A, B*, it is drawn through on the other side, and slit into several pieces or strings; and then if there be occasion, any of these strings may be put through the plate mill with the same heat, and made into plates.

OPQ is the shears for clipping bars of cold iron into lengths; *V* a cog in the axis of the water-wheel; *OP* one side of the shears, made of steel and moveable about *P*; the plane *LPR* is perpendicular to the horizon. When the mill goes about, the cog *V* raises the side *OP*, which as it rises clips the bar *TQ* into two, by the edges *SP, RP*. All the engine, except the water-wheels *E, F*, is within the house.

Ex. LXIV.

APC a windmill to frighten birds from corn or fruit. This 252. is made of wood; the sails *F, F* a foot long, and their planes inclined to the axis *BC*, 45 or 50 degrees; the piece *B* goes upon the end of the axis *BC*, and is pinned fast on, and the sails and axis turn round together, and the axis goes through the board *AD*, and is kept from flying out of the hole, by the piece *B* pinned fast. The whole machine is moveable about the perpendicular staff *AG*, by which means the wind turns the mill about the axis *AG*, till the plane *AD* lies directly from the wind, and then the sails face it. At *S* is a spring to knock as it goes about, and the like on the other side.

Ex. LXV.

An *anemoscope* to shew the turnings of the wind; *CD* is a 253. weathercock of thin metal, fixed fast to the long perpendicular axis *DF*; which turns with the least wind upon the foot *F*, and goes through the top of the house *RS*; to this axis is fixed the pinion *A*, which works in the crown wheel *B*, of an equal number of teeth; the crown wheel is fixed on the axis *PI*, on the end of which the index *NS* is fixed; the axis *PI* goes
F f through

- FIG. through the wall LM ; against the wall is placed the circle
 253. $NESW$, with the points of the compass round it. Then if the
 vane CD be set to the north, and at the same time the index
 SN fixed on the axis PI to point at S , then however the wind
 varies, it will turn the vane CD and pinion A , and A turns
 the wheel B with the index N ; so that the index will always
 be directed to the opposite point of the compass to the vane
 DC , or to the same as the wind is in.

Ex. LXVI.

254. DEF is a rag pump, or chain pump. EF the barrel, CD the
 roller; GH an endless chain, to which are fixed several leather
 buckets I, I , hollow on the upper side that ascends; AB the
 handle. The use of this is to cleanse foul waters from dirt and
 rubbish. The roller is ribbed to hinder the chain from slipping
 in working. When the roller is turned it draws up the chain
 through the pump, with whatever is in the water, and dis-
 charges it at the top. Instead of the roller CD , a wheel like
 a trundle may be used, called the rag wheel.

Ex. LXVII.

255. A dyer's and fuller's mill. A the great wheel carried about by
 horses; this turns the trundles B, C, D , together with E, F, G ;
 then E turns the cog-wheel H , with the axis IK , and the cross
 pieces L, L ; $1, 1$, &c. are pullies or rollers; MN, MN
 wooden beaters, turning upon an axis passing through N, N .
 Whilst the axis IK turns about, the end b slides along the pul-
 ley 1 , and falling off, the part M strikes against the cloth in
 the trough at O, O ; the lantern F carries the cog-wheel P ,
 and the cranks Q, Q , which work the pumps T, T , by help
 of the levers R, R , moveable about a ; the trundle G carries
 the cog-wheels V and W , and W carries the trundle X , with
 the piston Y that grinds the indigo in the vessel cd , from whence
 it flows to the vessel Z ; the ends m, m , &c. of all the axles,
 run in pieces of timber going cross the mill, and fastened to one
 another and to the walls of the house.

Ex. LXVIII.

256. A machine to empty standing waters. This is no more than
 a large pipe or syphon ABC , being extremely close and tight
 that no air can get in.

If

If the pool of water *DE* is to be emptied over the hill *DHG*, FIG. let the pipe be placed with its mouth *A* within the water *DE*, 256. and the mouth *C* within the water *FG*, if the pipe be very large; then stop up *A* and *C*, and fill the pipe with water by the cock *B* at the top; then stopping the cock *B* very close, open *A* and *C*, and the water will flow through the pipe from *DE* into *FG*, which may run over at *F*, at a small height above *C*, and go away.

Note, the end *C* must always be lower than *A*, and the height of the top *B* above *DE* must not exceed 11 yards; for if it do the water will not flow. If the pipe be very straight, the end *C* need not be immerfed in the water; but if large it must, or else the air will insinuate itself into the pipe at *C*, and hinder the flux of the water.

Ex. LXIX.

EFGH is a coal gin. *E* the cog-wheel 11 feet diameter, and 257. 72 cogs; this carries the trundle *F*, near 2 feet diameter, and 12 rounds, together with the roll *G*, 4 feet diameter; *AH* is the shaft, 20 feet long. The axis *AB* runs upon the key-stock *C*. There are two cross trees *IK*, at the top, through which the axis *AB* goes; these cross trees are supported by four posts *KL* at the four corners. When the coals are to be drawn up out of the pit, two horses are yoked at *H* and go round in the path *QOD*, and draw the wheel about; and whilst the loaded corf *N* is drawn up to the top of the shaft *M*, by the rope going round the roll, the empty one at the other end of the rope is descending to the bottom; and the loaded corf *N* being taken off, and an empty one put on, the horses are turned, and made to draw the contrary way about, till the other corf comes to the top loaded; and so as one corf ascends the other descends, alternately. A corf of coals weighs about 5 hundred weight, and contains about $4\frac{1}{2}$ bushels. A pit is 40 or 50 fathom deep, and 50 fathom of the rope weighs about 3 hundred weight.

Ex. LXX.

A worm jack for turning a spit. *ABC* the barrel round which 258. the cord *QR* is wound; *KL* the main wheel of 60 teeth; *N* the worm wheel of about 30 teeth cut obliquely; *LM* the pinion of 15 or 16; *O* the worm or endless screw, on which are two threads or worms going round, and making an angle with the axis

axis of 60 or 75 degrees; *X* the stud, *Z* the loop of the worm spindle; *P* a heavy wheel or fly to make the motion uniform; *DG* the struck wheel fixed to the axis *FD*; *S*, *S* several holes in the frame, to nail it to a board, which is to be nailed against a wall, the end *D* going through it; *HI* the handle, going upon the axis *ET*, to wind up the weight when down; *R* are fixed pullies, *V* moveable pullies with the weight. The axis *ET* is fixed in the barrel *AC*; and this axis being hollow, both it and the barrel turn round upon the axis *FD*, which is fixed to the wheel *KL*, turning in the order *BTA*, but cannot turn the contrary way, by reason of a catch nailed to the end *AB*, which lays hold of the cross bars in the wheel *LK*.

The weight, by means of the cord *QR*, carries about the barrel *AB*, which, by means of the catch, carries the wheel *KL*, which carries the nut *LM* and wheel *N*, which carries the worm *O* with the fly *P*; also the wheel *LM* carries the axis *FD* with the wheel *DG*, which carries the cord or chain that goes about the spit head (a wheel like *DG*) which turns the spit. The more pullies at *R* and *V* the longer the jack will go; but then the weight must be greater.

The catch lies between the end *AB* of the barrel and the wheel *KL*, and is thus described: *ff* the barrel, *n* the main spindle; *dr* a tumbler moving easy on the centre pin *a*, fastened to an iron plate, nailed to the barrel; *b* a collar of iron, turning a little stiff on the spindle: from this proceeds the tongue *bc*, passing through the hole *c* in the tumbler; *r* the catch of the tumbler. Now whilst the barrel with the catch is turned about, in the order *efg*, upon the axis *n*, the collar is drawn about by the tongue *bc*, which tongue acting backwards, turns the tumbler about the centre *a*, and depresses the catch *r*; but the barrel being turned the contrary way, the tongue then acts towards *d*; this depresses the end *d*, and raises the catch *r*, which then takes the cross bars of the main wheel, and stops the barrel. This catch would also serve for a clock, and is better than a spring catch, because it makes no noise in winding up.

Note, the jack need not be placed so, that the axis *FD* be parallel to the spit, but any way it can conveniently; for it is no matter whether the chain crosses or not.

Ex. LXXI.

259. *DAF* the hydrostatical bellows. *AB*, *EF*, two flat boards of oak; the sides *AE*, *BF*, of leather, joined very close to the top and

and bottom, with strong nails; *CD* a pipe screwed into the *Fig.*
piece of brass in the top at *C*. 259.

If a man blows in at the pipe *DC*, he will raise a great weight laid upon the board *AB*; or if he stands upon the board *AB*, he may easily blow himself up, by blowing strongly into the pipe *DC*. If water be poured in at *D*, till the bellows and pipe be full, the pressure upon *AB* within, will lift as much weight upon the top *AB*, as is equal to a cylinder of water, whose base is *AB* and height *CD*.

Ex. LXXII.

ADM is a water-mill for grinding corn. *A* the water-wheel 260.
16 feet diameter, *BC* its axis; *D* the cog-wheel, with 48 cogs;
O a trundle, with 9 rounds, *LI* its axis; *MN* the stones 6 or
7 feet diameter. The lower stone *N* is the *lyer*, being fixt im-
moveable upon beams of wood; and the upper stone is the
runner, and is fastened to the spindle *LI*, by a piece of iron
called the *rind*, fixed in the lower side of the stone, to go square
upon the spindle; between which and the stone there is room
left for the corn to fall through upon the lower stone. The
spindle goes through the lower stone, and is made so tight with
a wooden *husb*, as to turn round in it easily. The upper stone,
with the spindle *LI*, is supported on the end *I*, upon a horizon-
tal beam of wood *FE*, called the *bridge*; the end *F* being fixed,
and the end *E* lying upon the beam *HG*, fixt at *G*, called the
brayer or *beaver*; the end *H* is supported by the *lifting-tree* *HK*,
by help of a wedge at *K*; by this means, the upper stone may
be raised or lowered; for if *KH* be raised with the lever *Kk*;
the end *E*, the axis *LI*, with the stone *M*, and the piece *GH*
are all raised, and may be fixed there by the wedge *K*; thus the
stones may be set as near or far off, as you will. The lower
stone is broader than the upper stone, and is feathered, or cut
into small channels, to convey the flour out, and is enclosed
with boards all around as *ab*, close to the lower stone, and above
the edge of the under one, to keep the meal in; and through
one side of the boards is a hole called the *mill-eye*, through
which the meal runs out into a *trough*.

The surfaces of the mill-stones are not flat, but conical; the
upper one an inch hollow, the under one swells up $\frac{1}{4}$ of an
inch, so the two stones are wider about the middle, and come
nearer and nearer, towards the outside, which gives room for
the corn to go in, as far as $\frac{1}{4}$ of the radius, where it begins to
be ground. The upper stone has a dancing motion up and
down,

FIG. 260. down, by the springing of the bridge, which helps to grind the corn. The flour, as soon as made, is thrown to the outside, by the circulation of the stone and the air, and driven out at the mill-eye. The quantity of flour ground is nearly as the velocity and weight of the stone. The stone ought not to go round above once in a second for bread corn.

The corn is put into the *hopper S*, which falling down into the *shoe TV*, runs into the hole at top of the stone *M*. The axis *LM* is made with 6 or 8 angles; which, as it turns about, shakes the end *V* of the shoe, and keeps the corn always running down. The axis *LM* may be taken off. *PQ* is the direction of the water, which acting against the floats *R*, carries about the water-wheel *A*, and cog-wheel *D*, which cog-wheel carries the lantern or trundle *O*, and the upper stone *M* that grinds the corn.

Sometimes one water-wheel *A* carries 2 pair of stones, and then 2 cog-wheels as *D* are put into the axis *BC*, which carry two trundles with the stones; otherwise the cog-wheel *D* carries a trundle *O*, and spur-wheel; which spur-wheel carries 2 lanterns with the stones, one lantern on each side the wheel; or sometimes the same cog-wheel *D* carries another lantern and cog-wheel, whose axis is parallel to the horizon; and this cog-wheel carries another lantern with the stones; and the trundle is such as to make the blue stones, or those that grind wheat flour, go near twice as swift as the grey stones do. In these cases, when one pair of stones is to stand still, there is either a loose rung to be taken out of its lantern, or else the bridge *EF* is shifted towards *H*, till the lantern *O* be clear of *D*.

The diameter of the water-wheel *A* must not be too large, for then it will move too slow; nor too little, for then it will want power. When a mill is in perfection, the velocity of the floats, wings, or hands *R*, upon the water-wheel, must be $\frac{1}{2}$ the velocity of the stream.

The higher fall the water has, the less of it will serve to carry the mill. In an undershot mill, where the water comes underneath the wheel; it is brought by a narrow channel called the *mill race*. The water is kept up in the mill dam, and let out by the *penstock*, when the mill is to go; and the penstock is raised or let down by help of a lever. The penstock being raised opens a passage to the water, 10 or 12 inches wide, through which it flows to the wheel; and when the mill is to stop, the penstock is let down and the orifice stoppt.

When the water comes underneath the wheel it is called an *undershot mill*; but if it comes over the wheel (as in fig. 282.) it

it is called an *overfall* or *overshot mill*. This requires less water FIG. 260. than an undershot mill; but there is not convenience in all places to make them. The water is brought to the wheel of an overfall mill, by a trough, which is turned aside, to throw the water off the wheel, when the mill does not go.

A *breast mill* is that where the water is delivered into boxes at about the height of the axis of the wheel, and moves the wheel by its weight. This requires more water than either of the other sorts.

A good overfall mill will grind $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 bushels of corn in an hour; and in that time requires 100 hogsheds of water, having 10 or 12 feet fall.

Ex. LXXIII.

AB is a trap to catch vermin, made of boards. *GH* a piece 261. of wood suspended over the bar *IL*, by the lever *DE*, moveable about *D*; and the thread *FE*, tied to the start *CK*; *imb* a piece of flat wood, moveable about *im*, and lying on the bottom, whose end *B* comes through a hole in the side, in which is a catch to take hold of the end *K* of the start, when the trap is set. When the vermin go into the trap, they tread upon the board *imb*, on which a bait is laid, which puts down the end *B*, and the start *CK* flies up; this gives liberty to the rod *DE* to rise up, then the piece of wood *GH* falls down, and knocks them on the head. If two pieces of board were nailed on the ends *G, H*, to reach below the piece of wood *GH*, the trap would take the vermin alive.

ABE is another trap, the end *B* is wire; and the end *A* slides 262. up and down in two grooves in the sides. When the trap is set, the end *A* is suspended by the thread *CD*, tied to the rod *DI*, moveable about *O*, the end *I* being held by the crooked end of the wire *IS*, moveable about *R*, the end *RS* going within the trap. A bait is put on the end at *S*, and the end *E* of the trap being open, the vermin goes in and pulls at the bait *S*; this pulls the catch *I* from off the end of the lever *ID*, which lets the end *A* fall down, and the vermin is taken.

Ex. LXXIV.

An engine for moving several *saws* for the sawing of stones, 263.
Ec. ILLI is a square frame, perpendicular to the horizon, moving in direction *LL*, in gutters made in the fixed beams *AM, CB*; and running upon little wheels. *IL* two rods of iron fixed
at

FIG. at *I* and *L*; *op* two hands of iron running along these rods;
 263. to these are fixed the saws, *S, S*. *HIK* is a triangle fixed to the axis of a great wheel; as the wheel and triangle go about from *H* towards *I*, the point *I* acting against the piece *G*, moves the frame towards *MB*, together with the saws *S, S*. When *I* is gone off, the angle *K* acts against the piece *F*, and moves the frame back again; then *H* acting against *G*, moves it forward; and so the saws are moved back and forward, as long as the wheel turns round. As these saws work by the motion of the engine, the hands *op* descend. The parts *F* and *G* ought to be made curve; and little wheels may be applied at the points of the triangle *HIK*, to take away the friction against *F* and *G*; the axle of the wheel may be made to carry more triangles, and work more saws, if the power is strong enough.

Instead of the triangle *HIK*, the frame may be moved by the two pieces *ab, cd*, going through the axis, across to one another; so that *ab* may only act on *F*, and *cd* on *G*; *F* being only in the plane of *ab*'s motion; and *G* in that of *cd*; so that *F* never falls in the way of *cd*, nor *G* in the way of *ab*.

Ex. LXXV.

264. *A* is an *eolipile*. This is a hollow globe of brass, with only a very small hole at the mouth. Take it by the handle *B* and set it on a fire till it is heated, then plunge it in cold water, and the air in which it was rarefied, will be condensed; and water will go into it, till it be about half full; then if it be set on the fire, the water will turn into vapour by the heat, and will blow out at the mouth with great violence, and continue so till the water is spent.

Ex. LXXVI.

265. *ABD* is a *hygroscope*. *BC* is an index hung by the (therm) string *AB*, the point *B* hanging over the centre of a circle, which is divided into equal parts. The string *AB* twists and untwists by the moisture or dryness of the air; by this means the index *BC* turns about, and shews the degrees of drought or moisture on the circumference *DC*.

Ex. LXXVII.

266. *A* windmill. *AHO* the upper room, *HOZ* the under one. *AB* the axle-tree, going quite through the mill. *STVW* the sails covered

covered with canvass, set obliquely to the wind, and going about FIG. 266.
 in the order *STVW*, their length about 6 yards, and breadth 2;
CD the cog-wheel, of about 48 cogs, *a, a, a*, which carries the
 lantern *EF*, of 8 or 9 rounds, *c, c*; and its axis *GN*; *IK* the
 upper stone or runner; *LM* the lower stone; *QR* the bridge, sup-
 porting the axis or spindle *GN*. The bridge is supported by
 the beams *cd, XY*, wedged up at *c, d*, and *X*; *ZY* the lifting
 tree standing upright: *ab, ef*, levers, whose centres of motion
 are *Z, u*; *fgbi* a cord with a stone *i*, for a balance, going about
 the pins *gb*. The spindle *tN* is fixed to the upper stone *IK* by
 a piece of iron called the *rind*, fixed in the under side of the
 stone. The upper stone only turns about, and its whole weight
 rests upon the bridge *QR*, and turns upon a hard stone fixed at
N. The trundle *EF* and axis *Gt* may be taken away, for it
 fixes on the lower part at *t*, by a square socket, and the top
 runs in the edge of the beam *w*. Putting down the end *f* of
 the lever *se* raises *b*, which raises *ZY*, which raises *YX*, and
 this raises the bridge *QR*, with the axis *NG*, and the upper stone
IK; and thus the stones are set at any distance. The lower stone
 is fixed immoveable upon strong beams, is broader than the up-
 per, upon which boards are placed round the upper at a small
 distance, to confine the flour from flying away, and the flour
 is conveyed through the tunnel *no* down into a chest; *P* is the
 hopper into which the corn is put, which runs along the shoe or
 spout *r* into the hole *t*, and so falls between the stones where
 it is ground. The axis *Gt* is square, which shaking the spout
r as it goes about, makes the corn run out; *rs* a string going
 about the pin *s*, which being turned about, moves the spout
 nearer or further from the axis, and so makes the corn run in
 faster or slower, according to the wind; and when the wind is
 great, the sails *S, T, V, W* are only part of them, or one side
 of them, covered, or perhaps only a half of two opposite sails
T, W are covered. Towards the end *B* of the axletree is placed
 another cog-wheel, trundle, and stones, with exactly the same
 apparatus as before; and the axle carries two pair of stones at
 once; and when only one pair is to grind, the trundle *EF* and
 axis *Gt* is taken out from the other; *xyl* is a girth of pliable
 wood, fixed at the end *x*, and the other end *l* tied to the lever
km, moveable about *k*; and the end *m* being put down draws
 the girth *xyl* close to the cog-wheel, and by this means the mo-
 tion of the mill is stopt at pleasure; *pq* is a ladder going into
 the higher part of the mill. The corn is drawn to the top by
 means of a rope going about the axis *AB*, when the mill is going.

G g

In

FIG. In mills built of wood, the whole body of the mill turns round to the wind, on a tampion or perpendicular post; but in those of stone only the upper part turns. The roof is the surface of a cone; there is a wall-plate of wood upon the top of the wall. In this a channel is cut quite round, in which are several brass rollers. The roof has a wooden ring for its base, which exactly fits into this channel, and the roof is easily moved round upon the rollers by help of a rope and windlafs.

In the wooden mill, 1 is the mill-house, which is turned about to the wind by a man, by help of the lever or beam 2; 3 is a roller to hoist up the steps 4.

Concerning the position and force of the sails, see Ex. 21 before.

Ex. LXXVIII.

267. *AB a force pump.* *C* the piston fixed to the rod *EC*, moveable about *E*; *DF* the handle moveable about *D*; *a, d*, two clacks or valves opening upwards. The piston *C* must move freely up and down in the barrel and exactly fill it, that no air get in. It is made close by circular pieces of leather cut to fit the barrel, and screwed close between pieces of brass. This pump acts by pressing down; for when the handle *F* is raised it raises the piston *EC*, and the water rises from *H*, opens the valve *d*, and goes into the barrel, at the same time the valve *a* shuts; but when *F* is put down, the piston *C* pressing upon the water, shuts the valve *d* and opens *a*, and forces the water that has been raised, through the pipe *BG*. The piston *C* must not be above 30 feet from the water in the well.

LM is another force pump, or a lifting pump. *N* the bucket; *a, b, c* valves opening upward. This pump is close at the top *S*, and the small rod of iron plays through a hole made tight with leather. This pump acts by forcing upwards, for when the handle *P* is put down, it lifts up the bucket *N*, the pressure shuts the valve *b*, opens *c*, and forces the water in the barrel *NS* along the pipe *QR*. At the same time the valve *a* opens and lets in more water from *M* into the barrel; and when *P* is raised *N* descends, the valves *a c* shut, and *b* opens, and lets more water pass through the bucket *N*, into the upper part; and when the bucket *N* is drawn up again, the water is forced along the pipe *QR* as before. This pump is the same as a lifting pump, only there is added the valve *c*, which is not absolutely necessary. No hole or leak must be suffered below the piston or bucket, for air will get in, and spoil the working of the pump; and the bucket must always be within 30 feet of the water.

In

In these pumps, the bore at *H* or *M*, through which the water rises, should not be too straight; the wider it is the faster the water ascends; nor should the pipe *BG* or *QR*, that discharges the water, be too straight, for then the pump will work slower, and discharge less water in a minute, or require more force to work it. For the calculation of a pump, see Ex. XXII.

There are several sorts of *valves* used in pump-work; as *T*, *V*, *W*; that at *T* being made of two pieces of flat leather, is called a *clack*; those at *V*, *W* are made conical, or of any indented figure, and fit exactly into a hole of the same shape. At the bottom of the valve is a pin put across it, to hinder its flying quite out of the hole.

Ex. LXXIX.

AB a *hydrometer*, to measure the densities of liquors, especially spirituous liquors. This is a hollow ball of glass, *B*, partly filled with quicksilver or shot, and hermetically sealed at the top *A*, when made of a due weight, by trials; the small tube *AB* is divided into equal parts, and graduated at equal distances; and these divisions noted to which it sinks in different fluids of the best sorts; which points must be taken as standards to compare others with; then if the hydrometer be immersed in any fluid, and the point to which it sinks in the surface be marked, it shews the density of it, and its goodness; for it sinks deepest in the lightest liquor; and the lightest liquids are the best.

Ex. LXXX.

AB is a *thermometer*, to measure the degrees of heat; *B* is a glass ball with a long neck *AB*. The ball and part of the neck is filled with spirit of wine tinged red with cochineal, and the end *A* is sealed hermetically; in the doing of which, the end of the tube *A*, the spirit and included air, are heated, which rarefies the air and spirit; so that when the end *A* is sealed, and the tube cools, the spirit contracts, and there is a vacuum made in the top of the tube; and therefore the spirit expanding and contracting by heat and cold, has liberty to rise and fall in the tube. This ball and tube is enclosed in a frame, which is divided into degrees; then as the top of the spirit rises or falls, the divisions will shew the degrees of heat or cold. These divisions are arbitrary, and therefore two thermometers will not go together, or shew the same degrees of heat and cold, except they be made to do so by graduating them both alike by observation.

FIG. This is commonly put in the same case with the barometer, fig. 270. 218.

There are other sorts of thermometers. *CD* a ball with a long neck open at the end *D*, partly filled with tinged spirit of wine, and put with the open end into the vessel *D*, near the bottom, which vessel is half full, or more, of the same spirit; the top of the tube *CE* is air: so in warm weather, when the air in *C* is rarefied by heat, it presses the spirit down into the bucket *D*, and as the point *E* descends, the divisions being marked, shew the degree of heat; or when it ascends, the degrees of cold. But this sort is affected with the pressure of the atmosphere, and therefore is not so true.

Ex. LXXXI.

271. *DA* is an artificial fountain. *AE* a strong close vessel of metal; *AB* a pipe reaching near the bottom of the vessel, and soldered close at *A*; *F*, *A* two cocks. If the cocks be opened and water poured in at *A*, till the vessel be about half full; then stop the cock *F*, and with a syringe inject the air at *A*, till it be sufficiently condensed within the vessel; then stop the cock at *A*, and take away the syringe; then as soon as you open the cock at *A*, the compression of the air at *C* will force the water up the tube *BA*, and spout up to the height *D*; and a little ball of cork may be kept suspended at the top of the stream *D*.

But an artificial fountain is most easily made thus: take a strong bottle *G*, and fill it half full of water; cork it well, and through the cork put a tube *HI* very close, to reach near the bottom of the vessel; then blow strongly in at *H* till the air in the bottle be condensed, then the water will spout out at *H* to a great height.

Any of these fountains placed in the sun-shine will shew all the colours of the rainbow, a black cloth being placed behind.

Ex. LXXXII.

272. *CpD* is Archimedes's water-screw. This is a cylinder turning upon the axis *CD*. About this cylinder there is twisted a pipe, or rather several pipes *no*, *pq* running spiral ways from end to end. This cylinder is placed higher at one end *D* than at the other; and its use is to screw up the water from the lower end to the higher. *AB* is a river running in direction *AB*; *a*, *b*, *c*, *d* several floats fixed to the cylinder; *EF* the surface of the water. Since the cylinder stands in an inclined position, the upper floats *a*, *b*,

a, b, are set out of the water, and the under ones *c, d* within it; *F I G.* so that the water acts only upon the under ones *c, d*, and turns 272. about the cylinder in the order *a, b, c, d*; by this motion the water taken into the spiral tubes at the low end, is by the revolution of the cylinder, conveyed through these pipes, and discharged at the top into the vessel *G*. If *AB* is a standing water, there is no occasion for the floats *a b c d*; and then the cylinder is to be turned by the handle at *D*. Instead of the pipe, a spiral channel may be cut round the cylinder, and covered close with plates of lead. The closer these spiral tubes are, the more water is raised, but it requires more force; also the more the cylinder leans, the more water it carries, but to a less height.

Ex. LXXXIII.

AL is a *rolling-press*, for copper-plate printing. *DE, FG,* 273. two wooden rollers, of about 12 or 16 inches diameter, running upon the ends of two strong iron axles, that go quite through them, and are fixed in them. To the axis of the upper one *DE*, is fixed the handle *BAC*. These rollers run in brass sockets, and must run very true upon their axles, and may be brought near, or set further from one another, by wedges, in the frame at *P, R*. *HIK* is a flat table or plank, going in between the rollers, and sliding freely upon the frame. *LM* the frame. *NO* a shelf to lay the paper upon. When the press is used, the upper roller is folded round with flannel, that every part of the print may take an equal impression; and a paper bottom, spread upon the table *HIK*, where the plate is to lie, to prevent the indenting of the plank; then warming the plate well over a charcoal fire, and rubbing it with the sort of ink proper for it, and laying it upon the paper bottom, on the table at *H*; take the printing paper and laying it carefully upon the plate, and turning the handle *CAB*, the motion of the roller *DE* turns the roller *FG*, and draws the table through between the rollers, together with the plate and paper; and the paper is printed.

Note, the paper must be thoroughly wetted in a trough; and after it has laid about a day or two, it is then to be passed through a screw-press, to squeeze the water out, and then it is fit for printing.

The ink made use of for printing copper-plates, is made of the stones of peaches and apricots, the bones of sheep's feet, and ivory, all burnt; this is called *Frankfort black*. This must be well ground with nut oil, that has been well boiled; and then

FIG. then it is fit for use. But the best ink is said to be brought
273. from *Holland*.

Ex. LXXXIV.

274. The *fire engine* to raise water. *LL* is a *great beam* or lever, about 24 feet long, 2 feet deep at least, and near 2 feet broad; it lies through the end wall *W* of the engine house, and moves round the centre *a*, upon an iron axis. *CC* a hollow cylinder of iron, 40 inches diameter, or more, and 8 or 9 feet long. *P* the piston sustained by the chain *LP*. *F* the *fire-place* under ground. *BB* the boiler 12 feet diameter, which communicates with the cylinder, by the hole 2, and throat-pipe *E*, 6 or 8 inches diameter; the boiler is of iron, and covered over close with lead; in this, the water is boiled to raise a steam: 45 is the *regulator*, being a plate within the boiler, which opens and shuts the hole of communication 2; this is fixed on the axis 34 coming through the boiler, on which axis is fixed the horizontal piece *b* 3, called the *spanner*; so that moving *b* back and forward, moves the plate 45 over the hole 2, and back again: *bl* is a horizontal rod of iron, moveable about the joint *b*: *xyedl* a piece of iron, with several claws, called the *wye*, moving about the axis *de*, in a fixed frame. The claw *sl* is cloven at *l*, and between the two parts passes the end of *bl*, with two knobs to keep it in its place. *AA* is the *working beam*, in which is a slit, through which the claws *xy* pass, and are kept there by the pin *q* going between them. *DDD* is a leaden pipe, called the *injection pipe*, carrying cold water from the *cistern* *S*, into the cylinder *CC*, and is turned up at the end within the cylinder: *f* the *injection cock*, to which is fixed the iron rod *fg*, lying horizontal: the end *g* goes through a slit, in the end of the piece *rg*, and on the end is a knob screwed on, to keep it in: *pcbrg* a piece of iron with several claws called the *eff*, moveable about the axis *bc*: the claw *rp* goes through the slit in the beam *AA*, and is kept there by the two pins *o*, *n*: the claw *rg* goes over the piece *gf*; as the piece *gf* is moved back and forward, the injection cock *f* opens and shuts: *i*, *i*, *Ec*. are several holes in the beam *AA*, that by shifting the pins, serve to set the pieces *p*, *x*, *y*, higher or lower, as occasion requires. *N* is the *sniffing clack*, balanced by a weight and opening outwards, to let out the air in the cylinder, at the descent of the piston. In some engines a pipe goes from it to convey the steam out of the house. *G* is a leaden pipe, called the *sinking pipe*, or *eduction pipe*, going from the cylinder to the
box

hot well H, it is turned up at the end, and has a valve opening *r i g.* upwards, this carries away the water thrown in by the cold wa- 274.
 ter pipe, or injection pipe; *t* is the *feeding pipe*, going from the hot well to the boiler, to supply it with water, by a cock opening at pleasure; *i, i* are two *gage pipes*, with cocks, one reaching a little under the surface of the water in the boiler, the other a little short of it. By opening these cocks, it is known when there is water enough in the boiler, for one cock will give steam and the other water; they stand in a plate which may be opened for a man to go into the boiler, to clean or mend it; *m* is the *puppet clack*; from this a wire comes through a small hole, to which is fixed a thread going over a pulley, with a small weight at it; the weight on the clack *m* is about a pound for every square inch; *YZ* the *steam pipe* going from the clack, out of the house. When the steam in the boiler is too strong it lifts up the puppet clack *m*, and goes into the steam pipe *YZ*, by which it is conveyed away, otherwise the boiler would burst; *KK* a pipe carrying water from the cistern *S* into the cylinder, to cover the piston to a good depth; *I* a cock opening to any wideness, that the water may run in a due quantity; *M* a hole to let it out, through a pipe, into the hot-well *H*, when there is too much; *VVV* a *force pump*, with a bucket and clack, and two valves opening upwards. This pump is close at the top *R*, and being wrought by the lever *LL*, it brings water out of a pit into the cistern *S*. *Q* the *pit* where water is to be raised; *X, X*, the *spears* which work in wooden pumps within the pit. The cylinder is supported by strong beams as 7, 8, going through the engine house; 6, 6 is the first floor; 7, 7 the upper floor. At *O*, in the end of the beam *CL*, there are two pins, which strike against two springs of wood, fixed to two timbers, lying on each side the great lever *LL*; these pins serve to stop the beam, and hinder the piston coming too low in the cylinder.

When the engine is to be set to work, the water in the boiler must be made to boil so long till the steam is strong enough, which is known by opening the cocks *i, i*; then the hole 2 is opened, by moving the spanner *b3* by hand; then the steam is let into the cylinder, which lets that end of the beam *LC* rise up; this raises the working beam *AA*, moves the eff *prg*, which moves *gf*, and opens the cold-water cock *f*; at the same time is moved the wye *xly*, which draws *lb*, and shuts the hole 2; the cock *f* being open, the cold water rushing into the cylinder, is thrown up against the piston, and descending in small drops, condenses the hot rarefied steam, and makes a vacuum under the piston; consequently the weight
 of

FIG. of the atmosphere, pressing upon the piston, brings down the
 274. end *LC*, which raises the other end *LQ*, which works the pumps
X, X. As the end *LC* descends, the working plug *AA* descends,
 and moving the eff, *prgf*, and the wye, *xyslb*, shuts the cold
 water cock *f*, and opens the hole 2, and the steam goes into
 the cylinder, which takes off the pressure of the atmosphere;
 and the end *LQ* descends by the weight of the spears *X, X*;
 and the end *LC* ascends as before, which opens *f*, and shuts 2:
 so by the motion of the beam *AA* up and down, and cock *f*,
 and hole 2, shut and open alternately; and by this means of
 condensing and rarefying the steam by turns, within the cylin-
 der, the lever or beam *LL* constantly moves up and down, by
 which motion, the water is drawn up by the pumps; and de-
 livered into troughs within the pit, and carried away by drifts
 or levels; at the same time, the motion of the beam *LL* works
 the pump *VRV*, and raises water into the cistern *S*.

When the engine is to cease working, the pins *n, o*, are taken
 out, and the cold water cock is kept close shut, while the end
LC is up.

The diameter of the pumps within the pit, is about 8 or 9
 inches; and the bores of the pumps where the spears *X, X*,
 work, should be made wide at the top, for if they be strait,
 more time is required to make a stroke, and the barrels are in
 danger of bursting; likewise if water be to be raised from a
 great depth at one lift, the pumps will be in danger of bursting;
 therefore it is better to make 2 or 3 lifts, placing cisterns to re-
 ceive the water.

292. The spears or rods, that work in the pumps, consisting of
 several lengths, are joined thus: each piece has a stud *a*, and
 a hole *b*, which are made to fit; and the studs of one being
 put close into the holes of the other, and the iron collar *g* drove
 upon them to the middle *d*, they are firmly fixed together.

274. There is never made a perfect vacuum in the cylinder, for
 as soon as the elastic force of the steam within is sufficiently
 diminished, the piston begins to descend; the vacuum is such,
 that about 8lb. presses upon every square inch of the piston, or
 in some engines, not above 6lb. This engine will make 13
 or 14 strokes in a minute, and makes a 6 feet stroke; but the
 larger the boiler is, the faster she will work. A cubic inch of
 water in this engine, will make 13340 cubic inches of steam,
 which therefore is 15 times rarer than common air. But its
 elastic force within the boiler is never $\frac{1}{10}$ stronger or weaker
 than common air; if stronger, it would force the water out of
 the feeding pipe.

This

This engine will deliver 300 hogheads of water in an hour, FIG. to the height of 60 fathom, and consumes about 30 bushels 274. of coals in 12 hours.

In some engines there is a different contrivance to open and 293. shut the regulator, which is performed thus; as the beam QQ ascends, it raises G , turns the wye $GCED$ about the axis AB , and the weight C falling towards B , the end E strikes a smart blow on the pin L , and drives the fork FL towards L , which draws the spanner PO towards L , and shuts the regulator; and when the beam QQ descends, a pin in it puts down the end A , and turns the axis AB , and the weight C descending towards B , throws the end D of the wye against L , which moves PO , and opens the regulator; the spanner PO sliding upon the horizontal piece O . There is a cord ron , fixed at r , n , and the top of the wye O , to hinder it from going too far on each side.

Likewise, for opening and shutting the injection cock, instead of the pieces rg , gf of the eff (fig. 274.) some engines have quadrants of 2 wheels H , I , with teeth, which moving one the other, opens or shuts the cock f of the injection pipe K .

In some engines there is a catch, held by a chain fixed to the great beam, and this catch holds the eff from falling back, and opening the cold-water cock, till the rising of the beam pulls the catch up by the chain, and then the eff falls.

A calculation of the cylinder and pumps of the fire engine.

If it be required to make an engine to draw any given number of hogheads of water in an hour, from f fathom deep; to 274. make any number of strokes in a minute, by a 6 feet stroke; find the ale gallons to be drawn at 1 stroke, which is easily found from the number of strokes given.

Let g = number of ale gallons to be drawn at 1 stroke.

p = pump's diameter.

c = cylinder's diameter.

Then $p = \sqrt{5g}$.

And supposing the pressure of the atmosphere on an inch of the piston to be 7lb.

$$\text{Then } c = p \sqrt{\frac{2.604f}{7}} = \sqrt{\frac{13.07fg}{7}}.$$

Note, if instead of 7, you suppose the pressure of the atmosphere to be l pounds, and instead of a 6-feet stroke, to make an r feet stroke, then $p = \sqrt{\frac{6}{r}} \times 5g$, and $c = \sqrt{\frac{13.07fg}{l}}$.

H h

Ex.

EX. LXXXV.

FIG. *AB* is the water engine to quench fire. *D, E* are two pumps 275. 5 inches diameter, having each a clack *a, b* opening upwards; *CO* a large copper air vessel, 9 inches diameter; this vessel stands upon a strong plate *kw*, 5 or 6 inches above the bottom of the chest *NM*. *SY* is brass pipe coming through the end of the chest at *S*, and at *Y* it divides into two cavities, going under the copper pot *CO* to the two pumps *E, D*; the cavity *YW* leads to the pump *E*; and directly above this cavity at *W* there is another cavity *y*, communicating with the pump *E*; and above the cavity *y* is placed the valve *r*, opening upwards into the copper pot *CO* from this cavity. There are the like cavities belonging to the pump *D*, the first going to the valve *a*, the other from the pump to the valve *s* of the copper pot. These cavities are made of hollow pieces of brass screwed fast together. *Z* is a cock, through which are two passages, one along the pipe *SY*, and another at the side of the pipe into the chest *NM*. This cock, by turning the handle *ce*, opens one passage and shuts the other, as there is occasion. *Xx* a leather pipe to be screwed on the end *S*, to draw water out of a well or river.

PR is the conduit pipe reaching near the bottom of the vessel *CO*, and soldered close into the top of it. At *R* and *Q* are screws, so that the pipe may be turned in any direction by the man that holds it; and at *V* a copper pipe must be screwed on, or else a long leather one, which being flexible is carried into rooms and entries; *HI* an iron axis, to which the iron levers *FG, LK* are fixed; this axis moves in sockets about *H, I*, which are screwed hard down; *FK, GL* two wooden handles fixed to the levers to work them by; *gb, pl* are two arches of iron fixed on the axis *HI*; *fd, mn*, the shanks of the pistons, being two strong rods of iron; *fg, bt, lq, mp* four iron chains fixed at *f, g*, and *b, t*, and *l, q*, and at *m, p*; at *f* and *m* are screws to screw the chains tight; these chains work the pumps; for when *FK* is put down, the chain *fg* pulls down the rod of the piston *fd*; and when *FK* is raised, the chain *tb* pulls it up again; and the same way the chains *lq, mp* raise and depress the piston *mn*. In some engines there are two arches, like *bg, tp*, fixed near the end *I* of the axis, and chains at them; from the ends of which, as also from *t* and *q*, two boards are suspended. These boards serve for treadles for men to stand upon to help to work the engine.

The

The vessel *CO* and two pumps are inclosed in a chest *AN*, *Fig.* and the whole machine moveable on wheels; the fore axle- 275- tree turning on a bolt in the middle, for the conveniency of turning to either side; but there are a great many forms of these engines; in some the lever lies cross over, in others lengthways; in some there is no chain work, but only pins for the pistons to move upon.

When the engine is to play, if it is by the water in a river, &c. the pipe *Xx* must be screwed on at *S*, and the end *x* put into the water; but if water is to be fetched, it must be poured into the chest *M*, which runs through the holes *T* into the body of the engine *N*; then turning the cock *cz* to open the proper communication, the handles *FK*, *GL*, must be moved up and down by men, by which means water is drawn into the pumps *E*, *D*, and forced into the vessel *CO*, and out of the pipe *PR*; for the piston *mn* being raised, the water is drawn along the cavity *ZYW*, through the valve *b* into the pump *E*; and when *mn* is depressed, the valve *b* shuts and the water is forced into the cavity *y*, through the valve *r*, and into the pot *CO*, which cannot return for the shutting of the valve *r*, when the piston *mn* rises again; and the like for the other pump *D*. Since the piston of one pump goes down whilst the other goes up, the water is forced by turns into the vessel *CO*, by these two pumps, so that there is always water going in; and the air confined at top of the vessel at *C* being condensed, will press the water up the pipe *PRQV*, and make it flow with a continual stream. If the water in *C* be compressed into half the space, it will force the water to 30 feet high.

In some engines there is another pipe, as *PR*, coming through the copper pot, and through the side of the engine, and these two pipes may play both at once if there is occasion; and if not, the end of one is screwed up.

Ex. LXXXVI.

A ship. This is the noblest machine that ever was invented; 276- it is compounded, and consists of so many parts, that it would require a whole volume to describe it. Some of the principal parts are these:

A the hull.

B the bow.

C the forecastle.

D the main deck.

E the stern.

F the ancient staff and ensign.

G the poop-lantern.

H the rudder.

H h 2

I the

- FIG. *I* the bowsprit.
 276. *K* the fore-mast.
L the main-mast.
M the mizen-mast.
N top-masts.
O top-gallant-masts.
P sails.
Q yards.
R vanes.
S the jack.
T the pendant.
V stays.
Vv main-stay, &c.
W shrouds.
X main-top-mast back-stay,
 &c.
Y the crane-line.
Z the anchor, to which the
 cable is fixt.
 1. Main-lifts.
 2. Fore-braces.
 3. Main-top-sail-sheets.
 4. The fore-tacks.
 5. Fore-top-sail-clew-lines.
 6. Main-top-sail-leetch-lines.
 7. Fore-bunt-lines.
 8. Mizen-bow-lines.
 9. Main-top-sail-haliards.
 And the like for the rest of
 the sails.

Most of these ropes are for hoisting the sails, and setting them in a proper position to the wind; for the wind always acts perpendicularly upon the plane of any sail; and urges the ship in direction of that perpendicular; and by the help of the rudder *H*, she is made to keep any direction required; for if the rudder be put about to any side, the water (as the ship moves along) will act violently against it, and drive the stern the contrary way, or her head the same way, as the rudder. A ship with a brisk fair wind will sail 8 or 10 miles an hour.

That any one sail may have the greatest force to move a ship forward, it must be so placed between the point of the wind and the ship's way, that the tangent of the angle it makes with the wind, may be twice the tangent of the angle it makes with the ship's way.

When the rudder is set to an angle of $54\frac{1}{2}$ deg. with the keel, it has the greatest force to turn the ship, and make her answer the helm.

301. Because the figure of a ship is the cause of her going well or ill, and of making more or less way through the water: I shall here give the construction of the fore part of a vessel that will move through the water with the least possible resistance.

Let *DdAcC* be the *water-line*, or horizontal section of the water and the hull of the ship, *AB* 30 feet, *CD* the greatest breadth 20 feet, *BC* 10 feet; *AeE* the stem and part of the keel; then the following table shows the length of every ordinate, as *bc*, taken at the distance *Ab*, or 1, 2, 3, &c. feet from *A*, by which the curve *AcC* is determined.

Length

FIG.
301.

length of <i>Ab</i> in feet	length of <i>bc</i> in feet	length of <i>Ab</i> in feet	length of <i>bc</i> in feet
1	0.90	16	6.36
2	1.48	17	6.64
3	1.96	18	6.92
4	2.39	19	7.19
5	2.79	20	7.46
6	3.17	21	7.73
7	3.54	22	7.99
8	3.89	23	8.25
9	4.22	24	8.51
10	4.55	25	8.76
11	4.87	26	9.01
12	5.18	27	9.26
13	5.48	28	9.51
14	5.78	29	9.76
15	6.07	30	10.00

The practice is thus: having made $AB = 30$ feet, and accordingly divided it into 30 equal parts; at the several points of division, erect perpendiculars to AB , equal to the lengths given in the 2d column of the table; the curve AcC drawn through the ends of all the ordinates is the figure of the ship on each side.

The curve AeE which the stem and keel make must be the same curve as AcC ; if the depth BE is supposed equal to BC , and the ordinates, be , BE must all be drawn perpendicular to AB ; but if the depth BE be taken greater or lesser than BC , then the ordinates must be taken greater or lesser in proportion.

Again if CDE be the section of the ship, made perpendicular to the axis AB , or horizontal plane CAD ; and ced be any other section parallel to it; then whatever the curve CED is, all the sections ced must be similar to it.

If a ship is required to be built either greater or less than this, then it is only taking a greater or less length instead of a foot, and dividing it decimally, and using it instead of a foot, to measure off the lengths as in the table.

Likewise if it was required to have the breadth to be greater or less than is here assigned, whilst the length remains the same, then it is only taking a proportionally greater or less line, instead of a foot, and setting off the ordinates bc by that; and thus

FIG. thus the requisites may be altered at pleasure, still retaining the general construction.

If any ship carpenter thinks fit to build a ship according to this model, it will be found to move faster through the water, than any other ship of the same length, breadth, and depth, and of a different form. The form of the curve is truly represented by the curve *AC*.

But it must be observed, that the curve at *C*, the broadest part, is not perpendicular to the ordinate *BC*, but makes an angle of about 76 degrees; to avoid this, it will be proper to produce *AB* a little further, and turn the side *AC*, at *C*, round in a curve, as quick as possible; or else make the 2 or 3 last perpendicular ordinates, something less than in the table, that the part of the curve at *C* may be in a parallelism with *AB*, as it ought, because *C* is the broadest part.

But though the form here given, is the most proper for sailing fast, yet perhaps it may not be so commodious as the common form, upon other accounts, as for the stowage of goods, &c. Yet privateers and ships of war made to pursue the enemy, ought to be built as near this form as they can conveniently; for it is a matter of great moment, either to have it in our power to come up with a ship we are able to take; or else to fly from and escape from one of superior force.

That a ship may steer well, the water ought to come freely and directly to the rudder, and therefore she must not be too short from the midship to the stern, and towards the stern she must rise well, and be built very thin below, lessening gradually to the stern post; likewise she must draw considerably more water abaft than afore; to carry a good sail, and also to avoid rolling, she must be made pretty deep in the hold; as to the dead work, or upper part of the ship, that may be left to the fancy of the builder; or contrived to answer such conveniences as may be wanted.

Ex. LXXXVII.

277. *AT* an air pump. *C, D*, two brass cylinders, 2 or 3 inches diameter, and a foot high, having two valves at the bottom opening upwards; *i, i*, two pistons working in the cylinders, having two valves also opening upwards; *FF* a handle going upon the axis of the wheel or lantern *E*, which wheel by the teeth moves the racks *G, G*, and by them the pistons, within the cylinder or pumps; *AB* a table or plate supported by the pillars *I, I, I, I*; *H* the receiver of glass, which by the hollow pipe

pipe of brass *no*, called the swan's neck, communicates with FIG.
the cylinders by means of a hollow brass pipe *PQ*, into which 277.
the swan's neck passes; *rs* a mercurial gage, being a glass tube
standing in the bucket of mercury *s*, and communicating with
the pipe *no*; *K* a cock under the table *AB* to let air into the
pipe *no*, and so into the receiver when there is occasion.

When the air is to be drawn out of the receiver *H*, a wet
leather is placed over the plate, and upon that the receiver *H*;
then raising the right hand *F*, the piston *t* of the barrel *D* is
raised, which takes off the weight of the atmosphere, conse-
quently the air passes out of the receiver *H*, through the swan's
neck *no*, and through the hollow brass *PQ*, through the valve
into the cylinder *D*; then the right hand *F* put down, the
valve at bottom of the cylinder *D* shuts, and the air passes
through the valve at *t*; at the same time that the left hand be-
ing raised, draws the air from the receiver, through *noP*, through
the valve into the cylinder *C*; so that by the motion of the
handle *FF* up and down, the air is at length drawn out of the
receiver *H*, by the pumps *C*, *D*; and the rarity of the air within
the receiver, is known by the height of the mercury in the tube
rs, which is known by the graduated frame; an absolute va-
cuum can never be perfectly made; for when the spring of the
air is so weak, as not to be able to lift up the valves at bottom
of the cylinders, no more air can be drawn out.

The handle *F* is lately made to turn always one way; thus 278.
A is a crank turned by the handle *F*; *NN* the leader or sword
going over the pin *I*, in the wheel *E*; whilst the crank *A* is
rising, it raises the side *S* of the wheel, and when the crank
descends, it thrusts down the same side *S* of the wheel *E*; so
the racks are alternately raised and depressed as the crank goes
about.

There are several sorts of glasses made use of for the air pump; 279.
As *A* a receiver open at top, covered with a brass plate and
oiled leather at *D*, and kept down by the cross piece *EF*, screwed
down upon the pillars *BC*, which pillars are screwed into the
table *AB* of the air pump.

H a receiver open at top, with a plate and collar of wet lea- 280.
thers *K*, through which goes the slip-wire *GI*, so tight as to let
no air in; this serves to lift any thing up by the hook *I*.

MP is a transferrer; *N* is a plate and leather, on which
stands the receiver *M*; *NP* a hollow tube going through the
plate; *O* a cock to open or shut the passage; the cock *O* be-
ing open, and the air exhausted by the pump, and then the
cock

FIG. cock being shut, the receiver and pipe may be taken away from
280. the air pump, the vacuum remaining in *M*.

L a receiver close at the top, with infinite others of like
fort.

Ex. LXXXVIII.

281. *London-bridge water-works*; *AB* the axis of the water-wheel
CD, which wheel is 20 feet diameter, and the axis 3 feet, and
19 feet long; *E, E*, 26 floats $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot broad; *G* a spur wheel
fixed to the axis *AB*, 8 feet diameter, 44 cogs of iron; this
moves the trundle *H*, $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet diameter, and 20 rounds; *HI* its
iron axis; *IK* a quadruple crank of cast iron 6 inches square,
each crank being a foot from the axis; the crank is fastened
to the axis at *I*, by help of a wedge going through both, which
causes the crank to turn; *L, L*, four iron spears belonging to
the cranks, and fixed to the 4 levers *MN*, 3 feet from the ends;
which levers are 24 feet long, moving on centres in a frame of
wood; *P, P*, four force-pumps of cast iron, wrought by four
pistons or rods *NP*; these pumps are 7 or 8 inches diameter,
having valves opening upward; *O* a hollow trunk of cast iron,
to which the pumps are close fixed; *Q* a sucking pipe going
into the water; *R, R*, four hollow pipes, 7 inches diameter, and
close fixed to the lower part of the pumps; these pipes are close
screwed to the hollow iron trunk *S*, into which 4 valves open;
T a pipe communicating with the trunk *S*, through which the
water is forced to any height; there are also four forcers placed
at the ends *M, M*, of the levers *M, N*, and working in four
more pumps, to which belong other trunks and pipes, *O, Q,*
R, S; at *B* the other end of the axis, there is placed exactly
the same work as at *A*, so that the great wheel *CD* works 16
pumps; there is also a machine made of cog-wheels and trun-
dles, contrived to raise the great wheel as the tide rises; the
great wheel will go at any depth of water, and as the tide turns,
the wheels go the same way with it, but stand still at high and
low water.

As the great wheel is carried about by the tide, it carries
round the spur-wheel *G*, which carries the trundle *H* with the
cranks *IK*, which by the spears *L*, move the levers *MN*; when
the end *M* is pulled down, *N* is raised with the piston *NP* in
the pump *P*, by which means the water is drawn out of the
river through the pipe *Q*, into the pump *P*; and when *NP*
descends, the valve shuts, and the water is forced through the
pipe *R*, through the trunk *S*, and along the pipe *T* into the
town; and when *N* rises up again by the motion of the cranks,
the

the valve in *S* shuts, and that in the pump opens, and more *FIG.* water rises through the pipe *Q* into the pump *P*; and as the *281.* cranks stand every way, there is always water rising in some of the pumps, and some always forcing through *R, S, T*. When the tide is strongest the great wheel goes 6 times round in a minute. This engine is said to raise 30 or 40 thousand hog-heads of water in a day.

Ex. LXXXIX.

The pile engine for Westminster bridge. *A* the great cog-wheel *283.* fixed to the great shaft *D*; *MO* a trundle and fly turned by the cog-wheel, this is to prevent the horses from falling when the ram is discharged; *B* the drum or barrel on which the great rope is wound; *C* a lesser barrel on which the rope *L* is wound, carrying the weight *N*; the use of this is to hinder the follower from falling too fast; the barrels *BC* are moveable about the great axis *D*; the cog-wheel and barrel *B* are fixed together by the bolt *F*, going through the cog-wheel into the barrel; *EI* is a lever moveable about *I*, going through the great shaft *D*; this lifts up the bolt *F*, the end *E* being made heavier by a weight, by which means it locks the barrel *B* to the great wheel *A*; *KI* the forcing bar going into the hollow axis of the great shaft *D*; this rests upon the lever *EI*; *XY* a great lever moveable about *3*, the end *X* being heavier, which with the end *Y* presses down the bar *KI*, thrusts down the end of the lever at *F*, and lets the bolt *F* descend, to unlock the barrel *C*; *Z* a rope fixed at *X*, and going up through the guides at *R*; *GK* a crooked lever moveable about *2*, the roller at the end *G* being pressed with the great rope, forces the end *K* against the catch at *K*, and hinders the bar *KI* from ascending. When the rope *H* slackens, the spring *7* forces the end *K* from the catch, and the bar *KI* ascends. *H* the great rope going round the barrel *B*, over the pulley *P*, up to the top and over the pulley *Q*, then down to the follower, where it is fixed; *T* the ram that drives the piles; *S* the follower, in which is fixed the tongs *W*, moveable about the centre; *VV* the guides between which the ram falls; at the inside of the guides at *R*, where they are fastened together, there are two inclined planes; at the bottom of the follower is a slit to receive the handle *6* of the ram *T*, to be taken up by the tongs *W*. *a, b, c, d* timbers for horses to draw at, in direction *abcd*.

As the horses go round, the great rope *H* is wound about the barrel *B*, and the follower *S* and ram *T* are drawn up, till the

FIG. tongs come between the inclined planes, which squeezing the ends 4 4 together, opens the end 5, and lets the ram fall down; then the follower *S* taking hold of the rope *Z*, raises the end *X*, and depresses the end *Y* of the lever *XY*, which thrusts down the bar *KI*, which thrusts down the end *FI* of the lever *EI*, with the bolt *F*, and unlocks the barrel *B*, which turning about the axis, the follower *S* descends by its weight, till it comes to the ram *T*, and the end 5 of the tongs slips over the handle 6 of the ram; then the rope *H* slackens, and the spring 7 forces the end *K* from off the catch at top of the bar *KI*, and lets the bar rise, and the weight *E* raises the bolt *F*, and locks the barrel *B* to the wheel *A*, and the horses still going about, the end 5 of the tongs takes hold of the handle 6, and the ram *T* is taken up as before.

All this machine is placed upon a boat which swims upon the water, and so is easily conveyed to any place desired.

Ex. XC.

284. *GH* a blowing wheel. *AB, CD* an iron cross; to this is fixed the circle of iron *EF*; to these are fixed 12 leaves *I, I, I*, which reach no nearer the centre than the iron circle; *1, 1, 1* are holes, through which the air passes into the cavities between the leaves; there is the same cross and iron circle on the other side, but without any hole; through the centre of both sides is put an iron axis and fixed there, and on the further end a handle is put to turn it by; this wheel is inclosed in a case which just touches the edges of all the leaves; but the rim or out edge *KK* is at a small distance from the ends of the leaves; on this side or flat of the case there is a hole left against the holes *1, 1*, to let the air through; the other flat is close; *LM* is the sucking pipe, being a tube fixed upon the case, so as to communicate with the cavities by the holes *1, 1*; *G* is the blowing pipe, and is another wooden tube communicating with the inside of the case; the axis turns upon two concave pieces of metal fixed to the case, the handle being on the back-side of the figure; *abcd* is a thin ring of wood fastening the leaves all together, and the like on the other side; on these rings are put two circles of blanketing to go close to the case, and also upon the iron circle *EF*.

The frame being fixed, and the handle turned about in the order *BCAD*; the motion of the leaves moves the air very swiftly to the outside, which being confined by the rim, is forced in a tangent along the tube *G*, whilst new air ascends along the

the sucking pipe *LM*, passes through the hole in the frame, and FIG.
 through the holes 1, 1, into the cavities between the leaves, and 284.
 so is thrown out of the wheel through the blowing pipe *G*.

If the pipe *LM* be continued to the place where any foul air is, it may soon be thrown out through the tube *G*, and dispersed abroad; or if the tube *LM* communicate with the fresh air, and *G* with any close room, fresh air may presently be injected into the room.

Ex. XCI.

AB an artificial fountain to play with either end up. *A* and 285.
B two cavities; *FO*, *KB* two open pipes, fixed to the basons at *K* and *O*; *GHI* and *CDE* two curve tubes open at both ends; when the fountain stands on the end *A*, pour water in at *O*; then turning the fountain like an hour glass upon the end *B*, the water will descend through the pipe *CDE*, and spout out at *E*; the air passing up the pipe *OF* to give it liberty; the water falling down upon the bason *EK*, runs through the pipe *KB* into the cavity *B*; and the fountain being turned, the water will descend through *GHI*, and spout out at *I* as before; and so being turned, it will play a-fresh as often as you will.

Note, while the jet *E* is playing, if the end *O* of the pipe *FO* be stopped with the finger the jet will cease playing, which being taken off it will begin again, and so may be made to play or stop at pleasure.

Ex. XCII.

AF a water barometer. *AD* is a small tube open at both ends, 286.
 cemented in the neck of the bottle *CE*; then the bottle being a little warmed to drive out some of the air, the end *A* is immersed in water tinged with cochineal, which goes into the bottle as it cools; then it is set upright, and the water may be made to stand at any point *B*, by sucking or blowing at *A*; this is a very sensible barometer; for if it be removed to any higher place, a very small decrease in the air's gravity will make the water rise sensibly in the tube. This may be made use of to find the level of places; but it is subject to this inconvenience, that it is a thermometer as well as a barometer, the least alteration of heat raising the water in the tube; to prevent which it must be inclosed in a vessel of sand, and then the air included in the bottle will retain the same degree of heat, at least for a small time.

Ex. XCIII.

FIG. *ADOF* is a jet d'eau. *AB* the reservoir where the water is kept; *CDIO* the pipe of conduct, which conveys water from the reservoir; *O* the cock, or adjutage, being a small hole in a thin horizontal plate, fixed upon the end of the pipe, through which the water flows; *OF* the jet of water, spouting up through the hole *O*, which descends again in the streams *FE* and *PH*; *OF* the height of the jet; *AG* the horizontal height of the water in the reservoir. If the part *LIO* of the pipe of conduct be buried under the surface of the water *KH*, and be invisible, the jet will seem to rise out of the water *KH*, as in many artificial fountains.

The adjutage is sometimes made conical, but the best sort for spouting highest is a thin plate with a hole in it. The bore of the adjutage ought to increase with the height of the reservoir, and the larger the adjutage the higher the jet will go, provided the pipe of conduct be large enough to supply it with water. Pipes of conduct ought not to be made with elbows, but to turn off gradually in a curve as *DIO*. The diameters of pipes of conduct ought at least to be 5 or 6 times the diameters of the adjutage, or else it will not spout so high. If a reservoir be 50 feet high, and the adjutage half an inch, the pipe of conduct should at least be 3 inches; or if the adjutage be an inch, which is better, the pipe of conduct must be 6 inches; and in these cases the jet will rise to the greatest height it can have. In general the diameter of the adjutage ought to be nearly as the square root of the height of the reservoir; and if you would have the velocity in the pipe of conduct to be the same at all heights of the reservoir, that the friction may not increase too much, then the square of the diameter of the pipe of conduct must be as the cube of the diameter of the adjutage. When water is carried a great way through pipes, the friction of the pipes will diminish its velocity, and the jet will not rise so high.

A jet never rises to the full height of the reservoir. If the height be 5 feet 1 inch the jet will only rise to 5 feet; thus the jet *OF* wants the space *FG* of the height of the reservoir; and the defect *FG* is as the square of the height of the reservoir *OG*; but smaller jets fall short more than in that proportion, being more retarded by the resistance of the air. The greatest jets never rise 300 feet high; for the velocity is so great, that the water is dissipated into small drops by the resistance of the air.

If

If a ball of cork or light wood be laid at *F*, it will be suspended *P I G.*
by the pillar of water, and play there without falling. 287.

Ex. XCIV.

AGE is a compound steelyard, for weighing vast weights; *IG*, 288.
CK two levers moveable about *B* and *E*; *LE*, *MB* two fixed
pieces; *AC* a cross bar supporting the end *C*, and moveable
about the pins *A* and *C*; the centre of gravity of *IG* and *AC* is
in *B*, and of *CK* and the hook *DN*, in *E*; *H* the weight to be
weighed; *F* the counterpoise moveable along the graduated
lever *BG*; the machine is hung upon the hooks at *L*, *M*;
here the power *F* is to the weight *H*, as $AB \times DE$ to $CE \times BF$.

Ex. XCV.

ABC is a horse-mill to grind corn; *C* the spur-wheel having 294.
72 cogs; *B* the lantern of 7 rounds; *A* the bopper, *E* the shoe;
F, *G*, the two mill-stones; *H* a lever or arm 8 feet long, going
into the axis *D* of the great wheel; *I* the traces to which one
or two horses are yoked; as the horse goes about in the path
1 2 3, he draws the arm *H*, which turns the great wheel *C*, and
this drives the trundle *B* with the upper stone *F*, which grinds
the corn; the corn is put into the hopper *A*, and falling into
the shoe *E*, runs through a hole at top of the stone *F*, and in
between the stones where it is ground; *KL* is the upper floor;
the whole is within the house.

Ex. XCVI.

AB a lifting-stock, set perpendicular; its use is to raise a great 295.
weight; *LO* is a slit going through it, in which there moves
the lever *CD*; *II*, *KK* two sets of holes; into which go the
pins *G*, *H*; when the weight *W* is to be raised, it is hung on
the hook and chain at the end *D* of the lever; and the pin
G being put into the first hole *I*; and the end *C* being put
down, the other end with the weight is raised, and then the pin
H is put into the second hole *K* under the lever; then the end
C being raised to *E*, the pin *G* is put into the second hole *I*.
Then *E* being put down to *C*, and the end *F* raised, the pin *H*
is put into the third hole *K*; the lever and pins being thus
shifted from hole to hole, the weight *W* is by degrees raised up.

Ex.

Ex. XCVII.

FIG. 296. A *bob gin*, for raising water; *AB* a large water-wheel carried by the water *W*; *C* and *D* two cranks, upon the axis, on each side the wheel, lying contrary ways; *EF*, *GH* two pieces of timber moving about on the cranks *C* and *D*, and also moveable at the joints *F*, *H*, upon two pins; *FI*, *HK* two beams, moving on the axis *L* and *M*; *I*, *K*, two arches with chains fixed to them, by means of which the pumps *O*, *N*, are wrought; when the water-wheel goes about, one crank as *C* pulls down the bar *EF*, together with the end *F* of the beam *FI*, and at the same time raises the end *I*, which draws the water up in the pump *O*; in the mean time the other crank *D* is raising the end *H*, and depressing the end *K*; when by the motion of the wheel, the crank *C* begins to ascend, the end *I* begins to descend, and the end *K* to ascend; so that one beam goes up whilst the other goes down, and there is always one pump working.

Ex. XCVIII.

297. A *gunpowder-mill*; *AP* the water-wheel; *B* its axis; *RPS* the water-course; *E* a spur-wheel carrying the two drums *C*, *D*, and the rollers *CF*, *DH* to which they are fixed; *a*, *a*, &c. 10 or 12 pins, or cogs fixed in either roller, equally on all sides; *b*, *b*, &c. 10 or 12 pestles 10 feet long, and 4 or 5 inches broad, armed with iron at the bottom; in these pestles are pins fixed to answer the pins *a*, *a*; which lift them up as the rollers turn round; *m*, *m*, &c. are wooden mortars, into which the pestles fall, each mortar will hold about 20lb. of paste; *OQ*, *IK*, *LN* are timbers through which the pestles work, and serve to keep them direct.

The materials being put into the mortars *m*, *m*, as the mill goes about; the pins in the rollers, take up the pestles *b*, *b*, by their pins; and when these pins go off, the pestles fall into the mortars *m*, *m*, and beat the ingredients to a paste; and as these cogs are placed on all sides the circumference of the rollers, there will be always some pestles rising, and others falling in a regular order.

Ex. XCIX.

298. A *crane*, or engine to raise a great weight, and keep it in any position; *AB* a double wheel for a man to walk in; *CD* a spur-wheel

wheel upon the same axis; *E, F, G*, are three wheels also fixed upon one axis, of which *G* is of wood, and *E* is moved by *CD*; *HI* is a catch moving on the pin *I*, this falls in between the teeth of the wheel *F*; *KLM* a half ring of iron, in which is a groove, going upon the edge of the wooden wheel *G*; *NM* a piece of timber fixed to the ring at *M*, and to the lever *PN*, and is moveable about the pins *M, N*; the lever *PN* is moveable about the centre *O*; *QR* a wooden rod, reaching to the catch *I*; *PST* a string fixed to the lever at *P*; *VXW* the rope going about the axis of the great wheel to raise the weight.

When the great wheel *AB* goes round, together with *CD*, the rope *VXW* raises the weight *W*; the wheel *CD* drives *E*, together with *F* and *G*; and the end of the catch *I* slides freely over the teeth of the wheel *F*; and the motion being stopped, the catch *I* acting against the teeth of *F*, hinders the wheel *F* from turning back, and so keeps the weight *W* suspended; but if you pull at the string *T*, it raises the lever *PO*, and thrusting the rod *QR* against the catch, raises it out of the teeth of the wheel *F*, and lets the weight *W* descend; but lest it descend too fast, the lever *PO* is to be raised higher by pulling at the string *TS*, and this depresses the end *ON* of the lever, and draws down the piece *NM*, together with the ring *KLM*, which ring being drawn close against the wheel *G*, stops the motion, or regulates it at pleasure.

Ex. C.

An engine for drawing water. *A* the cog-wheel, 10 feet diameter; *B* its axis, running in the frame *FFFF*, and on the foot *Z*; *C* a trundle 3 feet diameter, *K* its axis 15 or 20 feet long, running in the stocks *G, G*; *D, D*, two cranks of iron on opposite sides of the axis, and 2 feet long; *OP, QR* two beams moving upon an axis in the frame *SSSS*; *PD, RD* two rods of wood or iron, reaching from the beams to the cranks, moveable about *R* and *P*, and turning round on the cranks *D, D*; *I, I* two rods of iron, fixed to two chains that go over the arches *O, Q*, and to two pistons that work in the pumps *x, y*; *E* the tiller to which the horses are yoked; *1 2 3 4* the path in which the horses go round; *H, H* the surface of the earth; the wheel *A*, and trundle *C* are in a pit; the axis *K* under ground; and the cranks *D, D*, are in a pit.

When the horses, walking in the ring *1 2 3 4*, draw about the cog-wheel, by the tiller *E*, this turns the trundle *C*, with the cranks

FIG. cranks D, D ; and the rod PD being drawn down, pulls down
 299. the end of the beam P , and raises the other end O , with the rod Ix , and draws the water out of the pump x ; in the mean time, the other crank raises the rod DR , with the end R of the beam; and the other end Q , with the rod I descends; and the piston goes down into the pump y ; but as the wheel A goes about, the rod RD is pulled down, and QI rises up, and draws water out of the pump y , whilst OI and the piston descends in the pump x ; thus whilst one piston goes up, the other goes down, and there is always one pump discharging water.

Instead of two cranks, one may have three or four cranks at equal distances round the axis, and these will move three or four beams QR , and work three or four pumps; but beams of timber should be put between every two working beams, OP, QR , for the axles to run in.

Ex. CI.

300. *AEL* a twisting-mill to make thread or worsted; *B* a cog-wheel 3 feet diameter, of 33 or 34 teeth; *C* the drum of 4, 6, or 8 rounds, going on the square end of the axis of the cog-wheel; *D* a spur-wheel, 2 feet diameter, and 30 or 32 teeth, this is fixed to the reel *E*; the reel consists of 4 long pieces of wood, 6 or 7 feet long, 3 of which are fixed in the cog-wheel *D*, and are also fixed to one another by cross bars going through the axis of the reel; the fourth long piece of wood which composes the reel, is not fixed in the cog-wheel, but may be set nearer or further from the axis, by help of the pins 1, 1, 1; *F* a drum of 12 rounds, carried by the cog-wheel *B*; these rounds are fixed into the barrel *G*, of 1 foot and 6 or 8 inches diameter *MNOP* a fixed frame 6 or 7 feet long and 4 feet broad; 22, 22, &c. are whorles, carried round by the leathern belt *IKLIH*; these whorles run in iron sockets at the bottom of the frame, and are kept in their places by the snecks 3, 3, fixed to the upper side of the bottom part of the frame, upon the spindles of these whorles are put the bobbins, with the thread or worsted; the spindle and whorle is represented at *a*, the bobbin at *b*, the bobbin with the worsted on it at *c*; the length of the whorle and spindle is 10 or 11 inches, length of the bobbin 6 or 7 inches; diameter of the whorle where the belt runs, about an inch; diameter of the bobbin at top $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch, at the smallest part $\frac{2}{3}$ of an inch; these are for worsted. The whorles may be taken out of the snecks at pleasure, and they are kept in these snecks, by a feather put across the slit through two holes; the bobbins they

they use for thread are represented at *d*; *e* is a piece of lead which FIG.
 goes upon the top of the spindle to keep down the bobbin; *f*, *g* 300.
 are two wires fixed in it, for the thread to run through, from
 the bobbin to the reel, the diameter of the whorle about half an
 inch; the number of snecks, spindles, and bobbins on one
 side of the engine is 20 or 24, that is 40 or 50 in all; 4, 4, &c.
 are wires in the upper part of the frame for the thread to run
 through from the bobbins; the number of wires is equal to
 the number of spindles; also in the horizontal beam *QR* is the
 same number of wires, 5, 5, 5, &c. to direct the thread to the
 reel; *n*, *n*, are rollers for the edge of the belt to move over;
 6, 6 are two hanks upon the reel; when the belt grows slack
 by stretching, the frame *MN* is drove back by means of a wedge
S, and so kept at a greater distance from the roller *G*.

The trundle *C* may be taken off, and others of more or fewer
 rungs put on, as occasion requires, by lifting the end *T*, of the
 axis of the reel, out of its socket; and the finer the thread, the
 fewer rungs it must have; the circumference of the reel *DE*
 for worsted is 4 feet, 4 inches; for thread is 5 feet, 5 inches.

When the thread or worsted is wound upon the bobbins, by
 the help of a wheel they are put upon the spindles, as *C*; and
 then put within the belt *IKL* under the snecks 2, 2; then the
 handle *A* being turned, carries the cog-wheel *B* about, which
 drives the drum *F*, and the barrel *G*, the barrel *G* moves the
 belt in direction *IKL* about the frame *MN*, which resting on the
 whorles 2, 2, moves them, and the whorles and bobbins very
 swiftly about; in the mean time, the drum *C* is turned round
 by the axis of the cog-wheel *B*, and *C* carries about the spur-
 wheel *D* and the reel, with a slow motion. So the threads be-
 ing put through the wires 4, 5, and fixed to the reel, these threads
 will be wrapped about the reel, and make the hanks 6, 6; as many
 as there are bobbins; when the hanks are of sufficient big-
 ness, they must be taken off the reel, which is done by pulling
 out the pins 1, 1, and then one side of the reel will fall in, and
 the hanks slacked, and may be taken off one after another, by
 lifting the end *V* of the axis out of its socket.

The double yarn, &c. is to be wound tapering on the bob-
 bins, as at *c*, making it broadest at the low end, otherwise it
 will not come freely off the bobbins, without breaking.

The frame work consists of perpendicular beams fixed in
 others lying horizontal, as described in the figure, the breadth
 from *A* to *V* being 9 or 10 feet; the lower part of the frame
MN consists of two elliptical pieces, cut out of boards, and set

K k

at

FIG. at about a hand's breadth distance one above the other, with
 300. pieces of wood between; in the lower (which is broader than the other) are the sockets, in which the bottom part of the spindle of the whorles moves; in the upper, the snecks are fixed. The part *OP*, in which are the wires, is an elliptical piece like the under ones, and fixed thereto by 4 perpendicular pieces or pillars of wood; all the rest will be plain from the figure.

Ex. CII.

303. *AEKF* is a clock. The different forms and constructions of clocks are almost as various as the faces of those that make them. The following is a common 8 days clock; *KF* is the moving part; *AE* the striking part.

The work contained between 2 brass plates is as follows: *F* the first or great wheel of 96 teeth; *G* the second wheel of 60 teeth, its pinion *g* of 8 leaves; *H* the third wheel of 56 teeth, its pinion *h* of 8 leaves; *I* the balance wheel of 30 teeth, its pinion *i* of 7 leaves; and *K* the balance; likewise *A* the great wheel of 78 teeth; *B* the pin wheel of 48 teeth, *b* its pinion of 8 leaves; *C* the hoop wheel of 48 teeth, *c* its pinion of 6 leaves; *D* the warning wheel of 48 teeth, and its pinion *d* of 6 leaves; *E* the fly, *e* its pinion of 6 leaves.

The ends *R, R*, of the arbors of the wheels *A, F* come through the face of the clock, and these arbors are fixed in the barrels *P, P*, of 6 or 7 inches diameter; and on these barrels the therm strings *T* are wound, which go round two pulleys with the weights that carry the wheels about; these two barrels are moveable round about within the wheels, but are kept from turning back, by the catch *S* and its spring, and the ratchet wheels *Q* fixed to the barrel; the weights are wound up by help of the winch or handle *II*; in the rim of the wheel *B* are 8 pins, which as the wheel goes round, thrust back the end *s* of the hammer *O*, and when it goes off the pin, the spring *7* makes the hammer *O* strike against the bell *N*.

302. The wheel *C* has a hoop upon its rim, which is cut away in
 303. one place, to let the end 2 of the detent fall in; in the rim of the wheel *D*, there is a pin which stops against the end *x* of the arm *wx*, and hinders the wheels turning about.

On the axis *op* are fixed the two pieces *vs*, and the detent 1 2; on the axis *qr* are fixed two pieces *wx* and the lifter 3; and on the end *r* of that axis which comes through the fore plate, is put the lifter 10, and pinned fast on.

The

The arbor of the wheel *G* comes through the face; upon this arbor between the face and fore plate, is put the wheel *z* of 20 teeth, its arbor being hollow, and under the wheel is put the brass spring *l*, with the concave side upward, this spring having a square hole in it, to fit the shoulder of the arbor of *G*; the wheel *Z* of 40 teeth turns upon a fixed pin or axis, and is driven by the wheel *z*; the dial wheel *f* of 48 teeth, is put with its hollow socket upon the arbor or socket of *z*, then the face being put on, their ends come through it, and the hour hand *k* is put upon the square end of *f*, and the minute pointer *W*; upon the end of *z*, the wheel *z* being thrust down to bend the spring, and then a pin put in to keep it there; the pinion of *Z*, called the pinion of report, has 8 teeth, and drives the wheel *f* and the hour hand; now the spring *l* keeps the wheel *z* pretty tight upon the axis of *G*, so that *G* will carry it about along with it; and if the minute pointer be thrust about, it will force about the wheel *z*, and also *Z*, and likewise *f* with the hour pointer.

The arbor of the wheel *A* goes through the back plate; upon it, behind the plate is put the wheel *V* (or pinion of report) of 28 teeth, and pinned there; the double wheel *XY* is carried by *V*, and turns upon a pin fixed on the back of the plate; the wheel *X* has also 28 teeth, and the count wheel *Y* is divided into 11 parts of unequal lengths, according to the strokes the clock is to strike at every hour; part of this wheel is represented at *s*; a slender spring is put on with this wheel to keep it tight; this part may be made more simple, by leaving out the wheels *V*, *X*; and putting *Y* upon the axis of *A* instead of *V*; but it must be put on the contrary way.

The arbor of the balance wheel *I* comes through the fore plate, almost to the face, and through a hole in the face is put the hollow socket of the second pointer *12*; and this shows the seconds by a small circle divided into 60 parts; and the face is also divided into two circles, shewing hours and minutes.

The pendulum hangs on the fixed piece of brass *M*, by a button at top, and a thin piece of brass going into a slit at *M*, and a flat piece of brass goes into the fork *L*, so that if the pendulum moves, it must move the rod *KL*, and balance *K* along with it.

The pallets 8, 9, of the balance *K*, are so formed that the under-side of 8, and upper-side of 9, where the teeth of the wheel *I* act, are polished planes, and made sloping, so that a tooth sliding along the under-side of the pallet 8, will force
K k 2 the

FIG. the balance *K* to the left hand, and a tooth sliding along the upper-side of the pallat *g*, will force it to the right.

303. The work is put together, by setting the teeth together that are marked in the wheel *B* and in the pinion *c*, and likewise in the wheel *C* and pinion *d*; then the minute pointer is put on the arbor of *z*, mark to mark; and the hour pointer the same way on the arbor of *f*; and the wheels *z*, *Z*, *f* are set to one another according to their marks.

The weights hanging upon the wheels *A*, *F*; and the pendulum made to vibrate, the wheel *F* drives *G*, which drives *H*, which drives *I*, then whilst the pendulum vibrates to the right, a tooth slips off the pallat *g*, and in its return to the left, a tooth slips off the pallat *8*, then on the right another goes off *g*, and so on alternately; and the weight causing the teeth to act against the pallats of the balance, keeps the pendulum in motion, and the wheel *I* goes round in a minute.

As the wheel *G* goes round it carries about *z*, with the minute pointer once round in an hour; *z* drives *Z*, which drives *f* once round in 12 hours; whilst the wheel *z* goes round, the pin *m* raises the lifter *10*, which lifts up the piece *3*, and the arm *wx*; the piece *3* raises the detent *1 2*, together with *vs*; the end *2* of the detent being raised above the hoop, the wheel *C* moves about, and by the oblique figure of the end of the detent *2*, it raises the end of the detent higher, and also raises *s* out of the notch of the count wheel; then the wheel *D* turns round, till the pin in the rim stops at the end *x*, which hinders the motion; but as the wheel *z* goes further about, the lifter *10* falls down off the pin, together with the piece *wx*, and latch *3*, which suffers the wheel *D*, and the rest to turn round; and the pin-wheel causes the hammer to strike so often, till the end *s* falls into a notch of the count wheel, and then the detent *2* falls into the vacancy in the hoop, and locks the work, which continues so till the next hour, that the piece *10* is raised again, and then she strikes as before; the wheel *C* goes round every stroke of the clock; but she strikes 1 more every succeeding hour, because the teeth between the notches are made longer and longer in the count wheel; and it turns round once in 12 hours.

General rules in all clocks.

In the striking part, the pin wheel being divided by the pinion of the hoop wheel, the quotient shews the number of pins in the pin wheel.

If

If 78 be divided by the number of pins, the quotient shews FIG.
the revolutions that the pin wheel makes for one revolution of 302.
the count wheel. 303.

The hoop wheel divided by the pinion of the warning wheel, must be a whole number.

In the moving part, the *train* is the number of beats the clock makes in an hour, which is 3600 if the beats seconds: in this case the balance wheel must have 30 teeth.

If *G* turns round once in an hour and shews minutes, then the quotient of *G* divided by the pinion of *H*, multiplied by the quotient of *H* divided by the pinion of *I*, and that multiplied by twice the teeth in *I*, must be equal to the train; and if the beats seconds, then the product of the two quotients must be 60.

If also *G* shews the hours, then the quotient of *f* divided by the pinion of *Z*, multiplied by the quotient of *Z* divided by *z*, must be 12.

From the great wheel to the balance the wheels drive the pinions; but to the dial wheel the pinions drive the wheels; the former quickens, the latter lessens the motion.

Any wheel being divided by the pinion that works in it, shews how many turns that pinion hath to one turn of the wheel; as if the pinion be 5 and the wheel 60, it is set down thus,

$$5) 60 \text{ (12 times. Or thus } \frac{60}{5} = 12 \text{ times.)}$$

The teeth of several wheels and pinions that work in one another, are set down thus,

$$\begin{array}{r} 4) 36 \text{ (9 times} \\ 8) 80 \text{ (10 times} \\ 6) 54 \text{ (9 times} \\ 5) 40 \text{ (8 times} \end{array}$$

$$\text{Or thus } \frac{36}{4} \times \frac{80}{8} \times \frac{54}{6} \times \frac{40}{5}.$$

In the former way, the number on the left hand of any wheel is the pinion that it drives, and the number over it is the pinion on the same axis. In the latter way the several fractional quantities represent the quotients.

Any wheel and the pinion it drives, will have the same motion with another wheel and pinion, when their quotients are equal. Thus a wheel of 36 drives a pinion of 4, all the same

FIG. as a wheel of 45 does a pinion of 5; or a wheel of 90 a pinion of 10.

303. In any motion you may use one wheel and one pinion, or else several wheels and several pinions, provided they all give the same motion; therefore when a number is too big to be cut in one wheel, you may divide it into two or more quotients.

In a wheel and pinion that work in one another, their diameters must be as the number of teeth in each; and the diameter must be measured, not to the extremity, but to the middle of the tooth, or where they act.

303. The excellency of clock-work consists in forming the teeth truly, and to fit the notches exactly without shaking, and to play freely; the teeth must be cut into the form of cycloids, which resembles the shape of a bay leaf.

A clock goes exacter as the pendulum is longer, and the bob pretty heavy, and to make but small vibrations; and for more exactness, to play between two cycloidal cheeks; and the longer the arms $K8$, $K9$, the easier the clock goes. The length of a second pendulum is $39\frac{1}{2}$ inches. See the theory of pendulums in Prop. XL. XLI. LVIII.

The pallets 8, 9, are here formed after the common way; but there is another way of forming them. From the centre of motion θ , describe two small arches $\alpha\beta$, and $\delta\epsilon$. These small lines or planes $\alpha\beta$, and $\delta\epsilon$, and also the working side of the tooth $\lambda\mu$, must all range to x the centre of the balance wheel; and the ends of the pallets $\alpha\gamma$, and $\delta\eta$, must range a little to the right hand of the centre θ ; then the teeth of the balance wheel will fall alternately on the sides $\alpha\beta$, and $\delta\epsilon$; and any tooth, whilst it acts against $\alpha\beta$, or $\delta\epsilon$, will have no effect in moving the pendulum, but lies *dead*, till it makes its *escape* off the angle α or δ ; and then in moving along the plane $\alpha\gamma$, or $\delta\eta$, it forces the pendulum to the right or left.

But the construction will be better thus: take $\theta\tau$, $\theta\phi$, each equal to $\frac{1}{2}\alpha\delta$; from the centre τ describe the arches $\alpha\beta$, $\delta\epsilon$, and let the ends $\alpha\gamma$, $\delta\eta$, range to ϕ . Or perhaps it may answer the end as well to describe $\alpha\beta$, and $\delta\epsilon$, from the centre θ ; and let the acting side of the tooth range (not to x , but) to u , the outside of the circle described with the radius $xv = \frac{1}{2}x\mu$.

The inconvenience of any of these constructions, is, that the pallets are too thick, and can hardly find room to fall in between the teeth of the balance wheel.

Ex. CIII.

FIG.

304.

ABC is a cutting engine to cut the teeth of clock wheels. *AC* an iron plate $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, and 3 or 4 inches broad; *EE* another plate fixed 4 or 5 inches lower; *G* a slider, sliding along a groove in the end *C*; this is made of several plates of iron fixed to one another with screws, and fitting closely to the edges of the plate, and to the sides of the groove, and likewise to the upper and under side of the plate; this is to cause it to move truly along the groove when forced forward or backward, by the screw at *I* and its handle; for this screws through *C*, and turns round in a collar in the end *G*. The end of this slider turns up perpendicular; to this is fixed the part *F* by a pin *K* which goes square into this part, and through a round hole in *F*; so that the part *F* can turn about the screw pin *K*, and may be fixed by turning the nut 2 with the key 9, which nut screws upon the end of the pin.

B is a brass wheel of 96 teeth, carrying the pinion *D* of 12 leaves; these move between the cheeks *LL*, *MM*; which are joined by the cross bars *N* and *P*; these cheeks and their machinery turn round on the axis *LM*, in the part *F*. *f* is the cutting wheel, whose edge is nothing but a file to cut the teeth, as it goes about; this goes upon the arbor of the pinion *D*. There are a great number of these cutting wheels, of different shape and bigness, which may be taken off the arbor and others put on; these parts are described at *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*; *a* the pinion and its arbor, *b* the cutting wheel going upon the arbor which is octagonal, and fits it exactly, having the sides marked that are put to each other, *c* a hollow piece which goes on the same axis, and the nut *d* screws on the end of the arbor, to keep *c* and the wheel *b* fast on. The ends of the arbor are hardened steel, and pointed; and this arbor runs between the cheeks *LM*, through which cheeks there go 2 screws, with holes to receive the points of the arbor; and these screws are set to a proper distance, by screwing them in or out by help of a key *p*, going on square upon the end, and then the screws are locked there, by the nuts *O*, *O*. *rs* is a spring, fixed with one end to the under-side of the cross bar *N*, and the other end *s* lying upon the plate *AI*, and this spring raises the part *LLMM*, when the notch is cut; *tu* is a screw pin going through the bar *P*, its end *u* rests upon the plate *AI*, and hinders the wheels from descending lower; *i*, *i*, are two screw pins, which screw through *LM*, by help of the key *p*, and go with their points

FIG. points into *F*, which has two holes to receive them; these pins
304. are locked to *L*, *M* by turning the two nuts, which also screw upon the pins. These screw pins, nuts, and checks, all turn round together in the holes in *F*.

H is the *dividing plate*, being a brass circular plate 15 or 16 inches diameter. This plate is fixed to a hollow brass axle *Q* an inch in diameter, and this axle goes through the two plates *AI*, *EE*, and both the wheel and its axle turn about together; the lower plate cannot be seen, but is represented at *R*; near the edge of this plate there are 24 concentric circles, each divided by points into a certain number of equal parts, *viz.* 366, 365, 360, 118, 100, 96, 92, 90, 88, 84, 80, 78, 76, 72, 70, 68, 64, 62, 60, 58, 56, 54, 52, 48. The use of these is to divide a revolution into any number of equal parts, according to these different circles.

ei is an arbor going through the hollow axle *QR*, with the shoulder *b* against the top of that axis; then the nut *n* is screwed upon the end *i*, to keep it fast; *m* is the wheel to be cut into teeth; there is a hole made in the centre, just to fit the part *ge*, which being put on, and the piece *l* above it, they are then screwed hard down with the nut *k* going on the end *e*. Then if the wheel *H* be turned round, it carries about with it the wheel *m*. There are several arbors *ei*, for fitting different wheels *m*.

wy is a moveable index; it turns about a nail, as a centre in the end *w*, there being a slit in it to let the bottom of the screw *x* pass through as it moves; *y* is moveable back and forward, and may be fixed any way by the two screws; *z* is a steel point, which moves along the circumference of any circle you require, from one point to another; *T* is the winch to turn the wheel *B*; 2 is the handle to pull down the machinery near the plate.

To use this machine. An arbor *ei* proper for the wheel *m*, which is to be cut, being put through the axis *Q*, and screwed fast, as appears at *R*; and then the wheel *m* and the parts *k*, *l* put on above *Q*, and screwed fast; loosen the screw *x*, and, moving the index *wy* till the steel point *z* fall in the circle, containing the same number of parts, the wheel *m* is to be divided into, there screw it fast with the screw *x*; then putting on the cutting wheel *f* proper for the work; turn the handle and screw *I*, and drive the machinery with the wheel *f* towards *Q*, till the edge of *f* lie just over the edge of the wheel *m* to be cut; there fix it by the handle *V*, and turn the wheel *H* till *z* falls into some point of the circle; then take hold of the handle *S*, and pull it down, till *f* falls against the edge of *m*; then holding

ing it there with one hand turn the winch *T* with the other, FIG. 304.
 which carries about *B*, and this drives *D* with the cutter *f*, and
 this motion cuts a notch in the edge of *m*, and when it is deep
 enough, the pin *tu* (properly set) stops at the plate *AC* and hin-
 ders it from going further; then let go *S*, and the spring *rs*
 raises up the wheels, &c; this done, pull about the wheel *H*
 till *z* fall in the next point of division, then draw down *S*, and
 turn the machine as before, till you have made another cut
 deep enough; and thus you must proceed till *z* has gone through
 all the points of division in the circle, and then your wheel is cut
 into its proper number of teeth.

When the number of teeth wanted to be cut answers to none
 of the circles, take such a circle as can be divided by your num-
 ber, and if the quotient be 2, 3, 4, &c. then you must set *z* to
 every 2d, 3d, 4th point, &c. skipping the rest; as, if you want
 21 teeth, take the circle 84, which divided by 21 gives 4; so
 that you must set *z* to every 4th tooth only, and so cut it.

A crown wheel may be cut the same way, but then the cen-
 tre of the wheel *f* must be brought over the edge of the wheel
 to be cut, and there fixed; also oblique teeth may be cut in a
 wheel after the same manner, but you must first ease the screw
K, and then turn the cutting frame about *K* as an axis, till the
 cutter *f* have a proper degree of obliquity, and there screw fast
 the pin *K*, by the nut 2, and proceed as before.

After the teeth are cut with this engine, they are still to be
 wrought into their proper form, with files suitable for the busi-
 ness, and this the workman must do by hand.

Ex. CIV.

EH is a glazier's vice, for drawing window lead. *PG, QH* 305.
 two axles, running in the frame *KL, ML*; *C, D* two wheels of
 iron case hardened, $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch broad, and of the thickness of a pane
 of glass; these wheels are fixed to the axles, and run very near
 one another, not being above $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch distant; across their
 edges are several nicks cut, the better to draw the lead through;
E, F, two pinions of 12 leaves each, turning one another, and
 going upon the ends of the axles, which are square, and kept
 fast there by the nuts *P, Q*, which are screwed fast on with a
 key; *A, B* two cheeks of iron, case hardened and fixed on each
 side to the frame with screws; these are cut with an opening
 where the two wheels meet, and set so near the wheels as to
 leave a space equal to the thickness of the lead; so that between

L 1

the

FIG. the wheels and the cheeks there is left a hole, of the form re-
 305. presented at *N*, which is the shape of the lead when cut through; the frame *KLML* is held together by cross bars going through the sides and screwed on; and a cover is put over the machine to keep out dust, and it is screwed fast down to a bench by screw nails *LL*.

When it is used, the lead to be drawn is to be cast in moulds, into pieces a foot long, with a gutter on each side; take one of these pieces, and sharpen one end a little with a knife, and put it into the hole between the wheels, then turning the handle *I*, the lead will be drawn through of the form designed.

Ex. CV.

306. *AC* a water-mill for grinding corn, without either trundle or cog-wheel. *BC* is the arbor, or axis of the mill, this is a cylindrical piece of wood about two feet diameter; *GHIKLMN* is a leaf or wing of wood, whose breadth is about the radius of the arbor; this runs spiral-wise round the arbor from bottom to top, ascending in an angle of about 35 degrees; it must every where stand upright on the surface of the arbor; instead of one you may use two of these spiral leaves, especially if they be narrow; this arbor and its spiral leaf turns round upon a pivot *P* at the bottom; and at the top *B* it has a spindle which goes through a plank, and is fixed to the upper mill-stone *D*, which turns round with it, so that the arbor has little or no friction; *QRST* is a hollow cylinder, made of stone or brick, to enclose the arbor and its leaf, and whose inside is walled as near as possible, just to suffer the leaf to turn round without touching, so that no water can escape between the leaf and the wall; and consequently it can only run down the declivity of the leaf; its top is represented by the circle *QBTU*. *RWS* is an arch to let the water out at the bottom to run away, and big enough to go through to repair the engine; *F* is the trough that brings the water; *D*, *E* the two mill-stones; *A* the hopper and shoe. The arbor and its leaf may be cut altogether out of the solid trunk of a tree, or else the leaf may be made of pieces of boards, nailed to several supporters of wood, which are to be let every where into holes made in the body of the arbor, so as they may stand perpendicular to its surface, and all set in a spiral; and the spiral is made on this consideration, that for every 10 inches in the circumference of the axis you must rise 7 inches in the length; but at the top *G* it will be better to rise faster, so as to have its surface almost perpendicular to the stream.

When

When the mill is to go, the corn is put into the hopper at *A*, FIG. which runs down the shoe, through the mill-stone *D*; and the 306. spout *F* being opened, the water falls upon the oblique leaf *GHIK*, and by its force turns the axis *BC* about, and with it the stone *D*, and grinds the corn.

Ex. CVI.

DBF is the arch of a bridge, which shall sustain itself, and 307. all the parts of it in equilibrio. Such an arch will be stronger than any other, because an arch that can sustain itself will more easily sustain an additional weight, than an arch that cannot sustain itself, but only by the cohesion of the mortar. This arch *DBF* is a semicircle whose centre is *R*, and vertex *B*; and the wall *ATta* must be so built, that the height *AT*, in any place *A*, must be as the cube of the secant of the arch *BA*, which will cause it to run upwards towards *D*, in the form of the curve *IST*; but as this form is not commodious for a bridge, the construction may be performed thus: in any place of the arch, as *A*, let the superincumbent part *AT* be built of heavier materials than at *B*, in proportion of the cube of the secant of the arch *BA*, for the parts near *B*, but in something less proportion to the parts towards *A* and *D*; and the right line *GSg* being drawn will nearly terminate the top of the wall; but as materials cannot well be procured for this purpose, the following way may be used.

With the radius *BR* describe the arch *DBd*, of 90 degrees; 308. *DB*, *Bd* being each 45; and if *BR* consist of 100 parts, make *BS* 16; draw the right line *GSg* perpendicular to *SBR*; and the arch *DBd* shall support the wall *DGgd* in equilibrio in all its parts. If the arches *DB* and *Bd* be made each 60 degrees, and the height *BS* 7 parts, and the right line *GSg* drawn, then the arch *DBd* will equally support the wall *DGgd* in all parts; but then the materials made use of about the places *a, a*, ought to be only about half the weight of those at *B* and *D*; and these are the principal cases in which a circle is serviceable, for making an arch stand in equilibrio.

Another equilibril arch is from the catenary. Make the 309. *latus rectum* *BS* 100 equal parts, *BR*, *AR*, *RF* each 159, describe the catenary *ABF*, through the points *A*, *B*, and *F*; then *ABF* will be an arch which will support the wall *AGgf* in equilibrio in every point of it. The fault of this arch is, that by reason of the height *BS*, there is too much weight of wall upon

FIG. it, which will endanger the sinking the piers, except the foundation be very good; and it likewise raises the bridge too high.

309. Another arch of equilibration is this; make SB , BR , AR of any lengths at pleasure; draw the right line GS parallel to the horizon; and to the asymptote GS draw the logarithmic curve AB ; which may be done thus, draw AG perpendicular to GS ; divide SG into any number of equal parts, and as many points of division as you have, find so many mean proportionals between SB and GA ; set these from the respective points in SG downwards, in lines drawn through these points parallel to SR ; and these will give so many points, through which the curve BA is to be drawn, and the curve bF is drawn the same way; between these the pier BD is placed with a tower upon it. The only fault this arch has, is, that the water-way is diminished by the pier BD , and as many arches so many supernumerary piers there will be.

311. I shall now shew how to describe an arch clear of all these inconveniencies. Make BR , AR , RF , each equal to 30 feet, BS $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet; draw AG , Fg parallel to RS ; divide SG , Sg into 30 equal parts or 30 feet; through all the points of division draw lines parallel to SR , as TC ; then upon each of these lines set off from SG downwards, the number of feet you find in the following table, respectively, as TC ; then C will be in the arch; do the same with the side Sg ; then the curve $FBCA$ drawn through all these points C will be the arch required. The curve is easily drawn through these points, by help of a bow held to every three points, or rather to four or five points at once, which may easily be done by two or three persons holding it.

value of ST in feet.	value of TC in ft and dec. parts.	value of ST.	value of TC.	value of ST.	value of TC.
0	3.500	11	5.754	21	14.014
1	3.517	12	6.231	22	15.417
2	3.568	13	6.769	23	16.970
3	3.653	14	7.372	24	18.687
4	3.774	15	8.047	25	20.585
5	3.931				
6	4.127	16	8.799	26	22.682
7	4.362	17	9.636	27	24.999
8	4.639	18	10.567	28	27.557
9	4.961	19	11.600	29	30.381
10	5.332	20	12.745	30	33.500

FIG.
311.

If the thickness of an arch at top, *BS* be supposed to be 3 feet, 4 feet, or 5 feet, &c. it will require a different curve to be constructed, but this seems to be strong enough for the bigness of the arch, especially, if built of strong, sound stone: here $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet is assigned for the thickness of the arch; but it must be made 2 or 3 inches less on the account of the parapet wall, for this adds weight to the whole; also if the top *GS* is not exactly horizontal, but is 2 or 3 feet lower at *G* than at *S*, the thickness *BS* ought to be two or three inches less upon that account; or if higher at *G*, two or three inches more; but these niceties make no sensible difference in practice.

This curve differs from the catenary (in fig. 309.) For at the vertex *B* it is less curve than the catenary, and towards *A* it is more curve; the curvature at *B* in this arch is very near that of a circle, whose radius is *BR*; and the curvature increases from the vertex *B*, and is least about *C*.

At the points *A*, *F*, where the arch springs, it rises at an angle of $73^{\circ} 1'$, above the horizon.

If an arch is required to be either greater or less than this; it is no more than taking any other equal parts instead of feet, and setting off all the lines by these equal parts.

In this scheme I have drawn a circle to shew the difference between that and this arch; the like I have done in fig. 309, and 310; whence it appears, that a circle circumscribes all these arches of equilibration, and consequently a circle is too curve at the lower parts, or at the haunch of the arch.

If

FIG. 311. If any architects or builders of churches or bridges, shall please to make use of the curve here constructed (fig. 311.) for the form of an arch, they will find it the strongest arch possible to be made, for these given dimensions; and where many thousand pounds are laid out in building a single bridge, it is certainly worth the pains, to seek after the form of an arch which shall be the strongest possible, for supporting so great a weight; and it is very surprising that no one has attempted it; instead of that, all people have contented themselves with constructing circular arches; not knowing that different pressures against the arch, in different places, require different curvatures, which do not answer in a circle where the curvature is all alike. A circle, it is true, is very easily described, and that may be one reason for making use of it; but surely, the description of the curve here given, is very easy, by the foregoing table, and can create no difficulty at all; if there be any difficulty in the practice, it is only in cutting the stones of a true curvature, to fit the arch exactly in all places, but this is easily managed with a little care, by taking proper dimensions, observing that every joint must be perpendicular to the curve in that point.

A circle, or any other curve, where the curvature is not properly adapted to the weight sustained, is not capable of sustaining so vast a weight, but must in time give way, and fall to ruin, except the mortar happen to be so strong as to keep it together; on the contrary, the arch here described, sustaining every where a quantity of pressure proportional to its strength, will never give way, so long as the piers, which are its bases, stand good; but by virtue of its figure, will stand firm and unshaken, as long as the materials the arch is made of will last.

As to the piers, their thickness may be $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, or $\frac{1}{4}$ the width of the arch, according to the firmness of the ground they are to stand on; they must be considerably broader than the bridge, reaching out on each side into the water, being built with sharp edges to divide the stream; at the bottom they must be well fenced with sterlings for their security; the outermost pier must be built far backwards, to sustain the oblique pressure of the arch, which has nothing else to butt against; otherwise the pier or buttress will yield to the pressure of the arch, and the arch will break.

Another Construction.

In the former construction, I made the height *BS* to be only $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet, but as that may be reckoned too weak for an arch of 60 feet

60 feet wide, like Westminster bridge, where the height above FIG. the arches is 8 or 10 feet, therefore I have here given a new table for constructing the arch of a strong bridge, calculated upon the same principles as the former, being 7 feet, all the other dimensions remaining the same.

This arch rises from the pier at an angle of $7^{\circ} 20'$; in the former I set off all the points of the curve from the line *SG*; in this I set them off from the line *BEE*, which is a tangent to the top of the arch at *B*.

The construction is thus: having drawn the line *EBH* through the top *B* of the arch parallel to the base *AF*, take from the table col. 1 any length, and set it from *B* in the line *BE*, as to *L*, and from *R* to *I*, and draw the line *DI*; then from col. 2 of the table, take the correspondent length of *LC*, and set it from *L* to *C* in the line *LI*, then *C* is a point in the curve; and thus all the other points of the arch must be found, and then a curve drawn regularly through them all gives the form of the arch.

The TABLE.

value of <i>BL</i> in feet.	value of <i>LC</i> in feet.	<i>BL.</i>	<i>LC.</i>	<i>BL.</i>	<i>LC.</i>
1	0.021	16	6.251	$25\frac{1}{2}$	19.252
2	.086	17	7.173	26	20.263
3	.194	18	8.183	$26\frac{1}{2}$	21.316
4	.346	19	9.285	27	22.412
5	.543	20	10.488	$27\frac{1}{2}$	23.553
6	.787	$20\frac{1}{2}$	11.129	28	24.741
7	1.078	21	11.798	$28\frac{1}{2}$	25.978
8	1.419	$21\frac{1}{2}$	12.495	29	27.266
9	1.811	22	13.223	$29\frac{1}{2}$	28.605
10	2.258	$22\frac{1}{2}$	13.981	30	30.000
11	2.761	23	14.772		
12	3.324	$23\frac{1}{2}$	15.596		
13	3.951	24	16.455		
14	4.644	$24\frac{1}{2}$	17.349		
15	5.409	25	18.281		

Ex.

QCF is the weighing engine at the turnpikes, for weighing road waggons; *CD* is a strong beam of wood moving about the centre *I*; *EF* a steelyard, moveable about the centre *H*, and suspended at *D*, by the iron hook *DH*; *PA* several iron chains suspended at a hook, moveable about the centre *P*; *PH* is about 3 or 4 inches, *HF* about 10 or 12 feet; the 4 chains at *A* are to put round the waggon; *F* a leaden weight fixed at the end *F*, whose weight is about 1½ hundred weight; *G* a moveable weight of $\frac{1}{2}$ of a hundred weight, this is moved along the graduated beam *HF*, at pleasure; *KNL* a scaffold to walk on; *CS* is a chain hanging at *C*, and fixed to the brass pulley *S*; round this pulley goes the rope *MSR*, whose end *M* is fixed to the cross bar *QQ*, of the frame *QTT*; in this frame, the wheels and axles 1, 2, 3 move round; being turned by the handle *B*, fixed to an iron wheel or fly; these wheels and trundles are iron, the trundles contain 11 teeth, the wheels about 60; the rope *R* is wound about the wooden axle 3, being 5 or 6 inches diameter; at the end of the axle opposite to *B*, is another handle to be used upon occasion; the frame *QT* is fixed fast in the ground that it may not be pulled up; the beam *CD* and steelyard *EF*, move between the cheeks *KZ* and *NX*, which serve to guide them, and likewise strengthen the frame they move in, which frame is tied together with several braces, as *NO*, *VO*, &c.

When any waggon is to be weighed, the 4 chains *A* are hooked round it, and a man turns the handle *B*, which, by turning the wheels, winds the rope about the axis 3, which pulls down the end *C*, which raises the end *D* of the lever *CD*; the end *D* raises the steelyard *EF*, with the chains *A*, and the waggon; and a man upon the scaffold *NL*, moves the weight *G* till it be in equilibrio, and the divisions of the beam shew how much the waggon is above 60 hundred weight.

In some engines the beam *CD* is wanting, instead of which there are two blocks and pulleys, the upper one fastened to a cross beam *ZX*; the lower is hooked to the piece *DH*; and the rope goes from the top block, to the axis 3; but in this case, the axles of the wheels are parallel to the side of the machine, and not perpendicular, as they are in the former; and then there is but one wheel and pinion, each of iron, the wheel of 110 or 120 teeth, and pinion 11.

Lastly, in some machines that likewise want the beam *CD*,
the

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the wheels and axles 1, 2, 3 are placed in the top of the machine, FIG.
above ZX, where being turned round, they raise the beam FF, 312.
either by a rope going from it, or by blocks and pullies.

Ex. CVIII.

HRK is a large organ; HHH the sound board; this is composed of two boards; the upper board, or cover HHH; and the under one III, which is far thicker than the upper one; each of these is made of several planks laid edge-ways together, and joined very close; in the under side of the under board, there are several channels made, running in direction LL, MM, &c. continued so far, as is the number of stops in the organ, and coming almost to the edge HK; these channels are covered over very close, with leather or parchment all the way, except a hole which is commonly at the fore end next HK, upon which a valve or puff is placed; these channels are called partitions; when this flap or valve is shut, it keeps out the air, and admits it when open; on the upper side of the under board, there are likewise cut several broad, square gutters, or channels, lying cross the former, but not so deep as to reach them; these lie in direction LN, PQ, &c. And to fit these channels, there are as many wooden sliders or registers, s, s, s, &c. running the whole length; and these may be drawn in or out, at pleasure; the number of these is the same as the number of stops in the organ.

IKKK the wind chest; this is a square box, fixed close to the under side of the under board, and made air tight, so that no air can get out, but what goes through the valves, along the partitions.

V, V are the valves or puffs which open into the wind chest; and are all enclosed in it, and may be placed in any part of it, as occasion requires; one of these valves with the spring that shuts it, and wire that opens it, is represented apart, on the left hand.

C, D, E, F, &c. are the keys on which the fingers are laid, when the organ plays; these keys lie over the horizontal bar of wood W, in which are stuck as many wire pins z, z, on which the keys are put; and the keys move up and down upon this bar, as a center; 3 is another bar, against which the keys fall when put down; on this also, are several wires, going through the keys to guide them; and on this bar a list is fastened, to hinder the knocking of the keys against it.

Now the keys are made to communicate with the valves several ways, as I shall now describe; s, s, s, are the key rollers,

M m

moving

FIG. 313. moving on the pivots *t, t*; these rollers lie horizontally one above another, and one at the end of another, of such a length, as to reach from the valve to the key; *a, a, a*, arms or levers fixed to the key rollers; *w, w* the *valve wires* fixed to the arms *a, a*, and to the valves *V*, and going through the holes *b, b*, in the bottom of the wind chest; *b, b, b*, arms fixed likewise to the key rollers; *d, d, d*, the *key wires*, fixed to the arms *b, b*, and to the keys *C, D, E*; now putting down the end of any of the keys *C, D, E*, it pulls down the arm *b*, by the wire *d*, which turns the roller *s* about, with the arm *a*, which pulls down the wire *w*, which opens the valve, which is shut by the spring, as soon as the key is let go; in this construction, there must be a worm-spring fastened to the key, and to the bar *W*, on the further side, to keep the end *g* of the key down.

Another method of opening the valves is this; *xy, xy*, are slender levers moveable upon the centres *1, 1*; *5x, 5x* are wires going from the far ends of the keys, to the ends *x* of the levers; *yV, yV*, other wires reaching from the ends *y*, of the levers, through the holes *b*, to the valves *V*; so that putting down the key, *C, D, &c.* raises the end *g*, which thrusts up the end *x* of the lever, by the wire *5x*: this depresses the end *y* of the lever, which pulls down the wire *yV*, and opens the valve *V*.

A third way of opening the valves is this: at the end of the key 6, is a lever 8, 9, moving upon the centre 7, this with the key makes a compound lever; from the end 9, there is a wire goes to the valve; now putting down the end 6 of the key, raises the end 8, which depresses the end 9 of the lever 8, 9, and pulls down the wire, and opens the valve. I have only drawn one of these in the scheme, and but a few of the others, to avoid confusion.

R, R are the *rollers* to move the sliders, by help of the arms *cf, cf*, which are fixed horizontally in these rollers; *ke, ke* are levers also fixed in the rollers; *le, le* are the handles, which lie horizontally, and pass through the holes *l, l*; and are fastened to the lever *ke*, being moveable about a joint at *e*.

Now any handle *lp* being drawn out, pulls the end *e* towards *l*, which turns *Rk* about, along with the arm *cf*; and the end *f* pulls out the slider *fg*; and when *p* is thrust in, the arm *cf* likewise thrusts in the slider *fg*.

Upon all the several rows of holes which appear on the top of the upper board, are set upright so many rows of pipes; *X* is a *flute pipe* of wood, *Z* a *flute pipe* of metal, *Y* a *trumpet pipe* of

of metal; the pipes pass through holes made in boards, placed FIG.
above the upper board, to keep them from falling. 313.

The pipes are made to communicate with the wind chest after this manner, when any slider *fg* is drawn out, holes are bored through the upper board, through the slider, and through the under board, into the partition below, so that any pipes, placed upon these holes, will then communicate with the partition, which, by its valve, communicates with the wind chest; but when the slider is thrust in, the holes in the slider do not stand against the holes in the upper and under boards, and the communication is stopped, so that no wind can get to the pipe.

qT, *qT* are the bellows, which must be two at least; *q*, *q* the wings; *O*, *O* the handles, moving upon the fixed axes *nn*, *nn*; each of these bellows consist of two boards; the under board is fixed immovable; in this there is a valve *r* opening inwards, and a tube leading to it, called the conveying tube; there is also a hole in this under board, from which a tube leads to the portvent, which is a square tube *24*, rising upwards, and is inserted into the under side of the wind chest at *2*; and in the tube leading to the portvent, there is a valve which opens towards the portvent, which suffers the air to go up the portvent, but none to return; all the bellows are constructed after the same manner; now the handle *O* being put down, raises the upper board *T*, and the air enters through the valve *r*; and when the handle is let go, the weight of the upper board *T*, (which carries 3 or 4lb. to every square foot) continually descending, drives the air through the portvent to the sound board; and as one pair of bellows at least is always descending, since they work alternately, there will be a constant blast through the portvent.

In chamber organs, there is but one pair of bellows, which consists of 3 boards in nature of a smith's bellows, and so has a continual blast.

All the inner work is hid from sight, by the face of the instrument standing upon 36.

As many partitions *LL*, *MM*, &c. as there are in the sound board; so many valves *V*, *V*, rollers *s*, *s*, or else so many levers *xy*, or 89, and their wires; and that is just as many as there are keys *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, &c. and there are generally 61 keys, with flats and sharps, reaching from *G* to *G*, the compass of 5 octaves; but the scheme could not contain them all; likewise there are as many handles *l*, *l*, &c. rollers, *R*, *R*, &c. sliders *f*, *f*, &c. as there are different stops upon the organ; and

FIG. it must be observed, that, between the sliders $f, f, \&c.$ there are
 313. as many sliders on the right hand; and the same number of handles and rollers, which cannot be expressed in this scheme; and other rows of pipes placed between $LN, PQ, \&c.$ and towards the middle of the organ, the least pipes are placed, and the least partitions, the greatest being on the outside.

There are many stops in some organs, but generally 10 or 12 on each hand; these are some of them, diapason, principal, fifteenth, twelfth, tearce, cornet, trumpet, French horn, vox humana, flute, bassoon, cremona, $\&c.$ and a contrivance to swell the notes of some of the stops.

When this noble instrument is to be played upon, put down the handle O of the bellows, this raises the upper board T , and causes the air to enter in at the valve r , then that handle being let go, the other handle O is put down; during this time, the board T of the first descending, and shutting the valve r , drives the air through the other valve, up the portvent into the wind chest, then drawing out any handle, as the flute stop pl , this draws out the slider fg , and all the pipes in the set LN are ready to play as soon as the keys $C, D, E, \&c.$ are put down; therefore putting down the key D , by laying the finger upon it, opens the correspondent valve mV , and the air enters through it, into the pipe X , and makes it sound. In the same manner, any other pipe, in the set LN , will sound, when its key is put down; but no pipe in any other set PQ will speak, (because the communication is stopt,) till its slider f is drawn out by the corresponding handle l .

Pipes are made either of wood or metal, some have mouths like-flutes, others have reeds; the smallest pipes are made of tin, or of tin and lead; the sound of wooden and leaden pipes is soft; short pipes are open, and the long ones are stopt; the mouths of large square wooden pipes are stopt with valves of leather. Metal pipes have a little ear on each side of the mouth, to tune them, by bending it a little in or out. Whatever note any open pipe sounds, when the mouth is stopt it will sound an octave lower; and a pipe of twice its capacity will sound an octave lower.

314. It will not, I think, be foreign to my design, if I give a short account of the method of tuning organs, or harpsichords; but I must first premise something concerning the scale of music. It is known, from undoubted experiments, that if AL be a string of a musical instrument, and if the string be stopt successively at Y, s, q, p, o , and $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{4}{5}, \frac{5}{6}$ of it be made to vibrate, it will
 found

found an eighth, a fifth, a fourth, a greater third, and a lesser *third*, respectively.

314.

Now as the difference between the fourth and fifth is accounted a whole tone, whereof there are 6 to make up the octave; therefore we shall have $\frac{3}{4} - \frac{2}{3}$, or $\frac{1}{12}$ for the difference of the strings, that are to found a note one above the other, whereof the greater is $\frac{3}{4}$; consequently if the string is 1, that difference would be $\frac{1}{12}$; therefore $\frac{3}{4}$ of any string will found a note higher, and $\frac{2}{3}$ of this second would found 2 notes higher than the first, and $\frac{3}{4}$ of this third would found 3 notes higher than the first, &c.; and this being 6 times repeated to make up an octave, we shall have $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$, as it would be if this note was exact, but that product is less, being but .4933; and therefore $\frac{3}{4}$ is too small, and $\frac{2}{3}$ too great for a tone; and 6 of these notes do not exactly make up the octave.

After the same way, if we take the difference between the fourth and lesser third for a whole tone ($\frac{5}{6} - \frac{2}{3}$), we shall get $\frac{1}{6}$ of the string for a whole note, but this will be found to be too great, being .5314 instead of .5; therefore $\frac{1}{6}$ is too small for a note.

If we try by half notes, we shall still be no better. The lesser third, the greater third, and the fourth differ by half a note; of which there ought to be twelve in the octave. In the former case we get $\frac{3}{4}$ for the length of the string, in the latter $\frac{1}{6}$, and $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{6}$ for the length of half a note. The first is far too little, and the latter as much too big.

As none of these notes or half notes will make up an octave, so neither will any number of thirds, fourths, or fifths, make one or more octaves. A lesser third contains 3, a greater third 4, a fourth 5, and a fifth 7 half notes; therefore 4 lesser thirds, or 3 greater thirds make an octave; and 12 fourths should make 5 octaves, and 12 fifths 7 octaves. But if this was so, then we should have $\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^4 = \frac{1}{2}$, $\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^3 = \frac{1}{2}$, and $\left(\frac{5}{4}\right)^{12} = \frac{1}{2}$, (that is $\left(\frac{5}{4}\right)^{12} = \frac{1}{2}$), and $\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{12} = \frac{1}{2}$; but never a one of these is so; and hence we may conclude, that no scale, made up of these notes, or half notes, or any combinations of them, or of thirds or fifths, &c. can be perfectly exact.

Now to contrive a scale to answer as near as possible all the requisites, let *AL*, *Am*, *An*, *AO*, &c. to *AY* or $\frac{1}{2}$ *AL*, be 13 geometrical proportionals; then these strings *AL*, *Am*, *An*, &c. will found all the half notes in the octave, gradually ascending.

FIG. cending; therefore, if AL be put $= 1$, $AY = \frac{1}{2}$; Am , An , 314. AO , &c. being so many mean proportionals between 1 and $\frac{1}{2}$, will be found as set down in the following table.

<i>cords.</i>	<i>strings.</i>	<i>notes equally ascending</i>	<i>pure con-cords.</i>	<i>errors.</i>
ground	AL	1.00000	1.00000	0
<i>b</i> second	Am	.94387		
$\sharp$ second	An	.89090		
<i>lef.</i> third	AO	.84090	.83333	$b \frac{1}{15}$
<i>gr.</i> third	Ap	.79370	.80000	$\sharp \frac{1}{15}$
fourth	Aq	.74915	.75000	$\sharp \frac{1}{100}$
$\sharp$ fourth	Ar	.70711		
fifth	As	.66742	.66666	$b \frac{1}{100}$
<i>lef.</i> sixth	At	.62996	.62500	$b \frac{1}{15}$
<i>gr.</i> sixth	Au	.59460	.60000	$\sharp \frac{1}{15}$
<i>b</i> seventh	Aw	.56123		
$\sharp$ seventh	Ax	.52973		
eight	AY	.50000	.50000	0

In this table, the 3d column shews the lengths of the vibrating string, when the scale ascends by equal degrees of sound, or when all the half notes are equal.

The 4th column shews the length of the string to sound the pure concords.

The last column relates only to the concords, and shews the error of the 3d col. expressing what part of a whole tone it is, and whether it is below (expressed by b) or above (by $\sharp$). By this col. we can judge how the scale in the 3d col. will perform; and these errors are found by comparing the 3d and 4th col. together; as, suppose you would know what it is in the fifth we shall have $66742 - 66666 = 76$, and $70711 - 62996 = 7715$, which represents a tone in that place; then $\frac{76}{7715}$ or $\frac{1}{100}$ is the error, which is but the hundredeth part of a whole tone; and as the number in the 3d col. is greater, it shews, that by this scale, the fifth is flatter than it ought to be; and so are the rest of the errors found out and examined.

Now it is evident, that the error in a fifth or a fourth is quite insensible in practice; but the thirds and sixths suffer the most, being in some but the 13th part of a note, which perhaps may be sensible to a good ear; but then it will not be so perceptible in a third as it would be in a fifth, because a third is less perfect

fect than a fifth; and the sweeter the cord, the more easily is an imperfection discovered. Now although these trifling errors will take away something from the sweetness of the harmony, and will hinder the scale from being absolutely perfect, yet there is no remedy for it, but what is worse than the disease. FIG. 314.

As to the tuning this instrument, it is plain that the notes ought not to be tuned by perfect fifths, for the upper note will always be the hundredth part of a note too high; and since one must take 12 fifths, before he can come at the same note again, whence he set off, there will at last be an error of $\frac{12}{100}$ or $\frac{3}{25}$ of a note, which is very discoverable in a fifth. The method therefore to be taken, is, to make the upper note a very little flatter than a perfect fifth, by first tuning it perfect, and then lowering it a small matter, but not so much as to offend the ear. And after you have thus gone through the octave, if you find the last note either too high or too low; begin anew, and alter them all a little, according to your judgment, till the last does agree; but this judgment is to be attained principally by practice. Upon the first octave being rightly tuned, all the rest depend, and therefore one ought to be very exact in it; for in all the rest there is nothing to do but to take the eighths above and below. And you ought to begin to tune about the middle of the instrument.

Those that tune by thirds, ought to take the upper note of the greater third, as sharp as the ear will bear; and lesser thirds should be taken as flat as they may.

Most people in tuning take some of the fifths perfect, and leave others imperfect; which they call bearing notes; but this is attended with great inconvenience; for the music ought to be so set, that no fifth ought to fall on any of these bearing notes, which instead of being a perfect concord, will be no better than a discord, since the error in these bearing notes is very great; for if there is but one, in an octave, its error is $\frac{1}{10}$ of a note, if two of them, and both alike, $\frac{2}{10}$ of a note. Now if these people be so nice as to distinguish $\frac{1}{100}$ part of a note, much more would they be offended at $\frac{1}{10}$ or $\frac{2}{10}$; and always to avoid taking the fifths upon these notes, when they come naturally in the way, would be cramping; and even spoiling the music; and another disadvantage would arise, that a piece of music could not be transposed upon any key at pleasure, whatever need there might be for it, but must be tied down to a very few; and if this method could cure, in any measure, the errors of the fifths; yet it would not at all mend those of the thirds, which
are

FIG. 314. are far greater; and if any one third should happen to be bettered, it is certain that others will be made as much worse, and will be turned into discords.

Some that like not the *equiharmonic* or *isotonic scale*, above described, would compose a scale of several sorts of tones and semi-tones, as $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{10}$, and $\frac{1}{16}$, $\frac{1}{17}$, $\frac{1}{18}$, $\frac{1}{19}$, $\frac{1}{20}$, &c. but what end can this answer? It is very easy to shew, that if some cords may be taken perfect, others will be miserably bad, and degenerate into discords; but this scheme seems to be built only upon the consideration of abstract numbers; for it regards only this, how to make several fractional quantities resolve themselves into others more simple, by multiplication; which is a thing of no manner of use in music.

Others, to avoid the badness of the cords which fall in some places, have invented quarter notes, which make the music extremely hard to play; and is, besides, far from answering the end proposed: therefore, upon the whole, I cannot but think the scale above described to be the best for practice. For so small an error as $\frac{1}{1000}$ of a note in a fifth, and every where the same, cannot be sensible, or do much hurt to the music. And I will venture to say, that the very alteration of the weather, in 24 hours time, by heat or cold, drought or moisture, will have such an effect upon either strings or pipes, as to cause a greater difference than this amounts to. There are imperfections in every thing, which we cannot quite take away; all we can do, is to make them as little as possible.

More examples of the construction of engines might here be added; but as there is such an infinite variety in the world, it would be an endless task to describe all the kinds of them: therefore I think it needless to produce any more, especially, since their construction and use depend upon the same principles as these already described. And if the reader does but thoroughly understand the powers and forces of these before mentioned, he cannot be at a loss to find out the powers, forces, or motions, of any other machine, though never so compounded.

ALPHABETICAL INDEX

OF THE

TERMS *used in* MECHANICS.

A

AIR PUMP, a machine to draw the air out of a glass.

Fig. 277.

Ajutage, the spout for a *jet d'eau* in a fountain.

Amplitude, the distance a ball is shot to.

Anemoscope, a machine for shewing the point of the wind. See *Fig. 253.*

Angle of application, is the angle which the line of direction of a power makes with the lever it acts upon.

— **of inclination**, is the angle an inclined plane makes with the horizon.

— **of traction**, the angle which the direction of a power makes with an inclined plane.

Aqueduct, an artificial river or tube to convey water.

Arbor, the axle or spindle of a wheel. *Fig. 185. cf.*

Arch, a hollow wall, made of a circular form, to support any building.

Areometer, an instrument to measure the weight of liquors.

Arm, any piece of timber or metal that projects horizontally from some part of a machine.

Axle, or **Axis**, the line or spindle about which a wheel turns round. *Fig. 185. cf.*

Axis in peritrochio, a machine for raising weights, consisting of a wheel, fixed upon a cylinder for its axis.

B

Balance, a machine to weigh bodies in; one of the mechanic powers. *Fig. 188.*

Balance wheel, the fly or pendulum of a watch.

N n

Barometer,

EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

Barometer, a machine to shew the weight of the air or atmosphere. See *Fig. 218*.

Baroscope, the same as barometer; a weather-glass.

Barrel of a wheel, is the axle, or cylindrical body, about which the rope goes.

— *of a pump*, is the hollow part of the pump where the piston works.

Bars, straight pieces of timber or metal, that run cross from one part of a machine to another.

Base, the foot of a pillar.

Basil, that angle the edge of a tool is ground to.

Batten, a piece of timber three or four inches broad, and an inch thick.

To batter, to lean backward.

Balk, a long piece of timber.

Beak, the crooked end of a piece of iron to hold any thing fast.

Beam, a large piece of timber lying across any place.

Beetle, a wooden instrument, or mallet, for driving piles.

Bevil, any angle that is not right; an oblique angle.

Block, a lump of wood.

Blocks, pieces of wood in which the sheevers or pullies run, and through which the ropes go. *Fig. 42. A, B.*

Bolts, large iron pins.

Bond, the fastening several pieces of timber together, either by mortise and tenon, dovetailing, &c.

Brace, a piece of timber fixed obliquely into others, to stay them from moving any way.

Brackets, the checks of the carriage of a mortar; a cramping iron to stay timber work; also stays set under a shelf to support it.

Brads, nails having no broad heads.

Bridge, any horizontal beam, &c. that is to support something.

Butments, those supports on which the feet of arches stand.

Buttress, a piece of strong wall that stands on the outside of another wall to support it.

C.

Capstan, a machine on board a ship, to hoise the masts, or raise any weight. *Fig. 248.*

Cascade, a fall of water.

Cataract, is a precipice, or violent fall of water in a river, through high rocks, causing the water to fall with a great noise and force.

Catch,

Catch, some small part of a machine; which, in its motion, hooks or lays hold of some other part to stop it.

Centre of motion, the point about which a body moves.

— *of gravity*, the point upon which a body being suspended it will rest in any position.

— *of magnitude*, a point equidistant from the opposite extremes of a body; the middle.

— *of percussion*, the point of a vibrating body that gives the greatest stroke.

— *of pressure*,
— *of equilib.* } the same as the centre of gravity. See
— *of rest.* } P. 133, 134, and 145.

Centre pin, a pin about which, as a centre, a body moves.

Chain pump, a pump having several buckets fixed to an endless chain, which goes through it, and is moved round upon an axle. *Fig. 254.*

Chaps, two sides of a machine which take hold of any thing.

Cheeks two upright parts of a machine, answering to one another in position and use.

Chronoscope, a pendulum to measure time.

Clack, a sort of valve which is flat, like a board, serving to stop a fluid from running out. *Fig. 268. T a flap.*

Clampt, when the edges of two pieces of boards are joined together, so as the grain of one may lye cross the grain of the other.

Clasp, a sort of buckle to fasten any thing.

Clasp nails, those with little heads to sink into the wood.

Claws, slender crooked pieces of metal in a machine, which serve to move or hold any thing; long teeth.

To *Clench*, or *Clinch*, to double back the end of a nail, that it may not draw out again; to rivet.

Clench nails, nails that may be clinched.

Cock, a brass spout to let a fluid run out, or stop it by turning.

Cogs, the wooden teeth of a great wheel. *Fig. 185. a, a, a.*

Cog-wheel, a large wheel made of timber, where the teeth stand perpendicular to the plane of the wheel. *Fig. 185. CD.*

Collar, a ring of metal that goes about any thing, near the top, in which it turns round.

Column, the shaft or trunk of a pillar.

Contrate-wheel, a wheel in a clock, where the teeth are parallel to the axis, and stand on the under side of the rim.

Corbel, a piece of timber, or stone, set under another piece, to discharge the weight.

Crab, a small capstan with three claws, to be placed on the ground, moveable from one plane to another. This is called a flying capstan.

Crane, a machine for hoisting goods out of a ship, or for raising timber or stone. *Fig. 233.*

Crank, that part of an iron axis which is turned square with an elbow. *Fig. 238. II.*

Cross-tree, a horizontal beam fixed across another.

Crow, a strong square bar of iron, forked at the end, to remove heavy timber, &c. by using it with the hands.

Crown-wheel, in a clock or watch, is that next the balance; its teeth stand in the upper side of the rim, and not in the edge. *Fig. 166. FG.*

Cupola, a hollow arched tower, in form of a hemisphere, or a bowl turned upside down.

D.

Density, is a greater or lesser quantity of matter contained in a given space.

Detents, are those stops, which being lifted up, the clock strikes, and falling down the stops.

Dog nails, nails used for fastening hinges.

Domè, a round vaulted roof or tower; a cupola.

Dormant, a great beam lying cross a house; a summer.

Dormer, a window in the roof of a house.

Dovetailing, letting one piece of timber into another, with a joint in form of a dove's tail, being broader at the end, that it may not draw out again.

Drum, the lantern or trundle which is carried by a great wheel, *Fig. 266. EF.*

Drum-head, a timber head, or lump of timber, in form of a drum.

E.

Edging, the outside or border.

Endless chain, a chain with the ends joined together, by which any part of a machine is wrought.

Endless screw, a screw working in the teeth of a wheel, which may be turned about for ever. *Fig. 193. E.*

Engine, a mechanical instrument composed of wheels, levers, screws, &c.

Es' pile, a hollow globe of metal, filled with water, and put in the

the fire, the heat and vapour rushes out at a small hole, with a great noise. *Fig. 264*

Equilibrium, the equality of weight, of two or more bodies, &c. keeping one another at rest.

Eye, a hole in some part of a machine, through which any thing is put.

F.

Face, the front or foreside of a machine, or of some principal part of it.

Fang, some small piece of metal like a long tooth, that by its motion moves some other part.

Fellies, pieces of wood on the outside of a wheel, which make the rim.

Ferrule, a sort of hoop.

Floats, the flat boards set perpendicular on the edge of a water-wheel, by which the water drives the wheel about. *Fig. 236. D, D.*

Fly, that part in a clock, &c. that regulates the motion, and makes it uniform. *Fig. 168, 169, 170.*

Force, any thing that acts upon a body to put it in motion.

Force pump, a pump that discharges water by pressing it upwards. *Fig. 267, 268.*

Frame, the outwork of any machine, or what holds all the rest together.

Free, clear of all impediment.

Friction, the resistance that bodies have by rubbing against one another.

Fulcrum, that which supports a lever in moving any heavy body.

G.

Gain, the levelling shoulder of a joist or other timber.

Gin, a machine to raise great weights. *Fig. 257.*

Gravity, the weight of bodies.

—— *specific*, by this one body weighs more or less than another of the same bulk.

—— *relative*, is the weight of a body in a fluid, or on an inclined plane.

Groove, a channel cut in wood or stone.

Gudgeons, the eyes in the stern of a ship, on which the rudder hangs. The centre of an axle.

Gyrations, a whirling round.

Hand,

H.

Hand, an index, or pointer.

Handle, the part of an instrument to take hold on with the hand.

Handspike, a wooden lever to be used with the hand in moving any thing.

Head, the top part of any thing.

Hem, the edge of some cloth turned down and sewed.

Hinge, an iron joint on which a door turns, &c.

To Hitch, to catch hold on, with a hook or turn of a rope.

To Hoist, or *hoist*, to heave up, or raise by force.

Hook pins, taper iron pins with a hook head, by which they are struck out again: they serve to pin the frame of a roof or floor together till wrought off.

Hoop, a circular ring to put about any thing, to keep it fast.

Hydraulics, the art of making engines for water-works.

Hydrometer, an instrument to measure the density of fluids. *Fig.* 269.

Hydrostatics, a science teaching the weights, pressures, motions, and properties of fluids.

Hydrostatical balance, an instrument for finding the specific gravity of bodies.

Hygrometer, } an instrument for measuring the moisture and dry-
Hygroscope, } ness of the air. *Fig.* 265.

I.

Jack, an engine to lift up a loaded cart, or the roof of a house, &c. See *Fig.* 249. Also an engine to roast meat. *Fig.* 258.

Jack pump, a chain-pump.

Jambs, door posts, or window posts, &c.

Fet d'eau, the pipe of a fountain, which spouts up water into the air. *Fig.* 287.

Impetus, any blow or force wherewith one body strikes or impels another.

Joint, the place where one part is fixed into another, or moves about it.

Joists, those pieces of timber framed into the dormant, in a house, and on which the boards of the floor are laid.

K

Keys, stones in the top of an arch, to bind the sweeps together.

Kenk, a snarle, or little turn upon a rope that it cannot run.

Knee, a crooked or angular branch of timber.

Lantern,

L

Lantern, that part which is moved by the cogs of a great wheel, acting against the spindles or rounds. (The drum. *Fig. 266.* EF.

Latch, that which fastens a door, &c. A *sneck*.

Lever, a bar of iron or wood to raise a weight; one of the mechanic powers.

Leaves, the teeth of a pinion. *Fig. 185. c, c, c.*

Ledge, a flat border or plain, adjoining to a thing.

Level, an instrument to place any thing horizontal.

Linch pin, a pin that keeps a wheel from coming off its axle.

Lip, a thin edge turned hollow.

Loop, a piece of metal having a hole in the end, which goes over something. A noose in a rope that will slip.

M

Machine, a mechanical instrument for moving bodies.

Mechanics, a science that teaches the principles of motion, and construction of engines, to move great weights.

Mechanic powers, are these six: the balance, lever, wheel, pulley, screw, and wedge; and, according to some, the inclined plane.

Mitre, an angle of 45 degrees, or half a right one. An *half mitre* is a quarter of a right angle.

Momentum, quantity of motion; or, the force or power a body in motion has to move another.

Mortise, a square hole cut in a piece of stuff, to receive the tenon.

Motion, is the successive change of place of a body; or its passing from one place to another.

Moving force, any active force or power that moves a body.

Mouth, the part or parts of a machine that take hold of any thing. The entrance into any cavity.

N.

Nave, or naff, the block in the middle of a wheel.

Neck, a part near the end, cut small.

Notch, a dent, nick, or slit made in any thing.

Nut, the pinion of a wheel. *Fig. 185. AB.* A small piece of metal going upon the end of a screw nail.

Oscillation,

O.

Oscillation, the vibration or swinging of a pendulum.

P.

Paddles, a sort of oars. The ladle-boards on the edge of a water-wheel.

Pedestal, the base or bottom part of a pillar.

Peers, or *Piers*, a sort of buttresses, for support and strength.

Peg, a pin to go into a hole.

Pendulum, a weight hung by a string or wire, swinging back and forward to measure time.

Penstock, the sluice or door that opens or shuts the passage of the water to a water-wheel.

Percussion, the striking of one body against another.

Pestle, a long piece of wood or metal, which rises up and falls down again to beat or bruise something.

Pevets, or *Pivots*, the ends of the spindle of a wheel in a clock or any machine, which play in the

Pivot holes, the holes in which the ends of a spindle or axle of a wheel turn. *Fig. 185. e, f.*

Picket, a stake pointed with iron, to drive into the ground.

Pillar, a perpendicular column supporting one end of an arch, &c.

Pinion, a little wheel at one end of the spindle, consisting but of a few leaves or teeth. *Fig. 185. AB.*

Piston, a round piece of wood moving up and down within the body of a pump, to draw up the water.

Plate, a piece of timber, on which some heavy work is framed, as wall-plate, &c. A flat piece of metal.

Pneumatics, a science teaching the properties of the air.

Pole, a long staff, or slender piece of wood.

Post, a perpendicular or upright beam of wood.

Power, the force applied to an engine to raise any weight; or any force acting upon a body to move it.

To Project, to jet out or hang over.

Projectiles, balls or any heavy bodies thrown into the air.

Prop, a stay or support for any thing, to bear it up.

Pulley, a small wheel with a channel in the edge of it, moving about an axis fixed in a block; the channel is to receive a rope that goes over it. One of the mechanic powers.

Pump, an engine to raise water. *Fig. 204.*

Punching,

Punchins, short pieces of timber, placed upright to support some weight.

R.

Rag-wheel, the barrel or wheel in a chain pump.

Rails, small pieces of wood joined into others; those pieces into which the pannels of doors, &c. are fitted.

Rammer, an instrument for driving stones or piles into the ground, or beating the earth.

Random, the distance to which a ball is shot.

Range, the direction a ball is shot in, from a piece of ordnance.

To *Range*, to run straight, or directly in a line.

To *Reeve*, to pass a rope through any hole.

Return, the side that turns off from any piece of straight work.

Ribs, slender pieces of timber, serving for strength and support.

Reglets, little flat, thin, square pieces of wood.

Rim, the circular part or outside of a wheel.

To *Rivet*, to batter down the end of a nail, that it draw not again.

Rod, a long slender piece of wood or metal.

Roll, or *roller*, an engine turned by a handle, to raise weights, fig. 243.

Rounds, the staves or spindles in a lantern, against which the teeth of a great wheel work, fig. 266, c, c. The steps in a ladder, &c.

Ruler, a thin straight piece of wood.

Rungs, spindles or rounds, fig. 266, c, c.

Runner, a flat circular ring, between the nave and linchpin of a wheel; also a sort of rope on board a ship, to hoist with.

S.

Sails, large pieces of canvass, by which ships, windmills, &c. are carried by help of the wind.

Scantlin, stuff cut to a proper size.

Screw, one of the mechanic powers. The tap with the thread is the *male screw*, the hollow that receives it, is the *female screw*.

Scribing, drawing an irregular line upon one piece of stuff, parallel to the irregular side of another, with a pair of compasses opened to a due distance, and carried along the side

- of it, then the wood in the first piece being cut away, these two pieces will fit each other.
- To Seize*, to bind or fasten a rope, &c.
- Shaft or shank*, any long part of an instrument, especially that is held with the hands.
- Shears*, two poles set up an end sloping, and tied together at top, and secured by a rope from falling; their use is to raise any weight by help of a block and tackle at top.
- Sheevers*, pullies, the little wheels that run in blocks, by a rope going over them.
- Shelf*, a board, &c. fixed horizontally.
- Shoulder*, a part of timber or metal, cut thicker than the rest, in order to support something.
- Shrouds*, the ledges on the edge of a guttered wheel.
- Sills, sells, or groundfels*, pieces of timber that lie on the ground, into which others are fixed. Sole trees.
- Siphon*, a crooked glass tube for drawing off liquors, *fig. 216.*
- Sleepers*, pieces of timber laid as a foundation and support for others that are to lie upon them.
- Slings*, these are made of a rope spliced with an eye at either end, to go over a cask or some heavy thing, which is to be hoisted.
- Snatch block*, a great block with a sheever in it, and a notch cut through one of the cheeks of it, to hitch the rope into the pulley for readiness.
- Socket*, a hollow piece of metal, in which any thing moves.
- Sole*, the bottom of the gutter or channel, in a guttered wheel.
- Sole tree*, the lowest piece of timber which lies flat on the ground, into which the upper works are framed. The groundfel.
- Spanish-burton*, a sort of tackle to hoist goods, like *fig. 197.*
- Spear*, a long pointed iron, or piece of timber.
- Specific gravity*, is that whereby one body weighs more or less than another of the same magnitude.
- Spike*, a pointed iron, or piece of wood.
- Spindle*, the axle of a wheel, *fig. 185. cf.*
- Spire*, the turns of a rope about a cylinder or roller.
- To Splice*, to join two ropes together by working the strands into one another.
- Spokes*, pieces of wood running from the centre of a wheel to the circumference, like rays.
- Spring*, an instrument made of steel, that being bent, it continually exerts a great force, that it may unbend itself again.
- Springing plates are sometimes made of brass.

Spur,

- Spur*, a sort of prop, set aslope to thrust.
Spurs, long wooden teeth standing in the edge of a large timber wheel, *fig. 192. a, a, a.*
Spur-wheel, a wooden wheel where the teeth stand in the edge of the rim, *fig. 192, CD.*
Staff, a stick or small piece of wood.
Statics, a part of mechanics, teaching the motions and properties of heavy bodies.
Stay, a piece of timber, or other thing, fixed as a prop or support to some heavy body.
Steelyard, an instrument to weigh bodies, consisting of a long beam and moveable weight, *fig. 190.*
Stock, the wooden part of a thing, and into which it is fixed.
Stopple or stopper, a plug that fits into a hole.
Stops, any small pieces in a moving machine, that serve to stop the motion.
Strain, the stress or violence any thing suffers by a weight or force acting against it.
Strokes or straits, the iron going round the circumference of carriage wheels.
Stud, a knob, or little button; a solid piece of metal fixed to a plate.
Stuff, any wood that joiners work upon.
Swivel, a metal ring that turns about any way.
Syphon, the same as siphon, a crane, *fig. 216.*
Syringe, an instrument for injecting liquors into any place.

T.

- Tackles*, blocks, with pullies and ropes in them, to heave up goods, *fig. 196, 197.*
Tenon, the square end of a piece of wood, made to fit into a mortise hole.
Thermometer, } an instrument to shew the degrees of heat and
Thermoscope, } cold, *fig. 270.*
Tbread, the spiral ridge that goes winding round a screw.
Thrust, the action against a body to push it forward.
Tight, stiff, close.
Tongue, a thin slender piece of metal in a machine.
Tool, an instrument to work with.
Tooth, the indented part on the edge of a wheel that moves some other wheel, or what serves to cut, or take hold on.
Transom, an overthwart beam in a building.

- Triangle*, an engine standing on three legs, to raise weights with, fig. 195.
- Trundle*, the part which is carried about by the teeth of a wooden wheel; the lantern or drum, fig. 266. EF.
- Trunk*, a hollow tube or box.
- Tumbler*, a part in a machine that rolls about upon an axis, and plays back and forward.
- Tumbrel*, a roller or cylindrical piece of wood.
- Tympanum*, a kind of wheel placed on an axle, and has staves or rounds instead of teeth, and is carried about by a great wooden wheel; a trundle or drum, fig. 266. EF.

V.

- Valve*, a piece of wood, &c. so fitted into a hole, that it opens and lets a fluid pass through one way, and shuts and stops it at the other, fig. 268. V. W. A *sucking valve* is that where the water follows the piston; a *forcing valve* when it is driven through before it.
- Vane*, a sail, or fan, generally to show the point of the wind.
- Velocity*, an affection of motion, and is that by which a body passes over a certain space in a given time; swiftness or celerity.
- Vibration*, the moving or swinging of a pendulum back and forward.
- Vis inertiae*, a property of body, by which it resists any impressed force, and endeavours to continue in the same state.

W.

- Wallower*, a trundle upon a horizontal axis, fig. 257. F.
- Waterpose*, an instrument to try the strength of liquors; a hydrometer.
- Web*, the thin broad part of an instrument, as the web of a key, &c.
- Wedge*, an instrument to cleave wood; one of the mechanic powers.
- Weight*, the tendency of bodies downward; the matter raised by an engine.
- Wheel*, a machine consisting of an axis and a circular rim, with teeth in it, and then it is called a toothed wheel.
- *Smooth*, a wheel without teeth, turned by a rope.
- Wheel and axle*, a machine to raise weights; one of the mechanic powers, fig. 30.

Winch,

EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

285

Winch, an instrument with a crooked handle, to turn any thing about with.

Winder, a winch or handle to wind ut.

Windlafs, a machine to raise great weights. On board a ship it serves to hoist the anchor. It is an horizontal roller turned round by handspikes.

Windmill, a mill to grind corn, moved by the wind, *fig.* 266.

Wing, a thin broad part that covers something, or hangs over it; also what helps to give due motion to any thing, as the hands in a water-wheel; a part of a sail, &c.

Worm, a spiral thread running round a cylinder, forming a sort of screw.



L I S T

OF THE

Principal Machines described in this Book.

- AIR PUMP**, *fig. 277.*
 Arch for Bridges, *fig. 307, 308 to 311.*
 Artificial fountains, *fig. 271, 285, 286, 287.*
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 ——— by water, *fig. 241, 242.*
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 Crane, *fig. 192, 193.*
 ——— compound, *fig. 298.*
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 ——— to quench fire, *fig. 275.*
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 ——— for drawing water, *fig. 299.*
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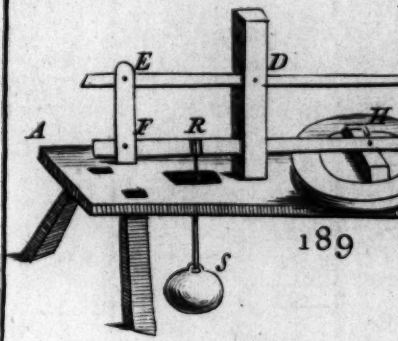
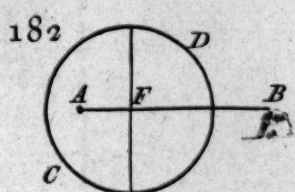
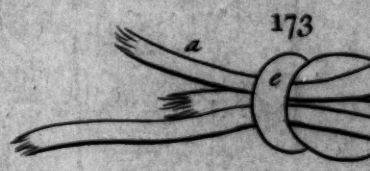
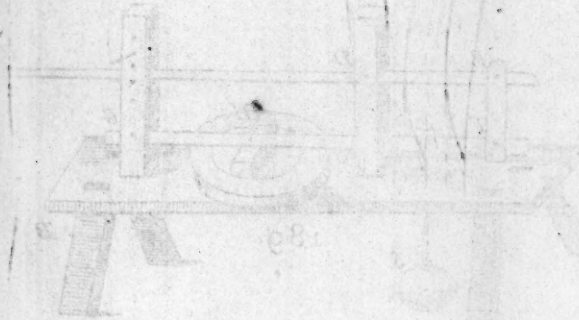
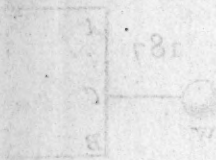
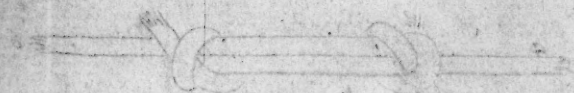
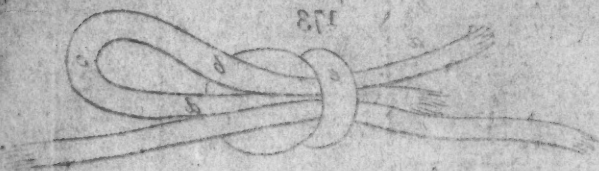
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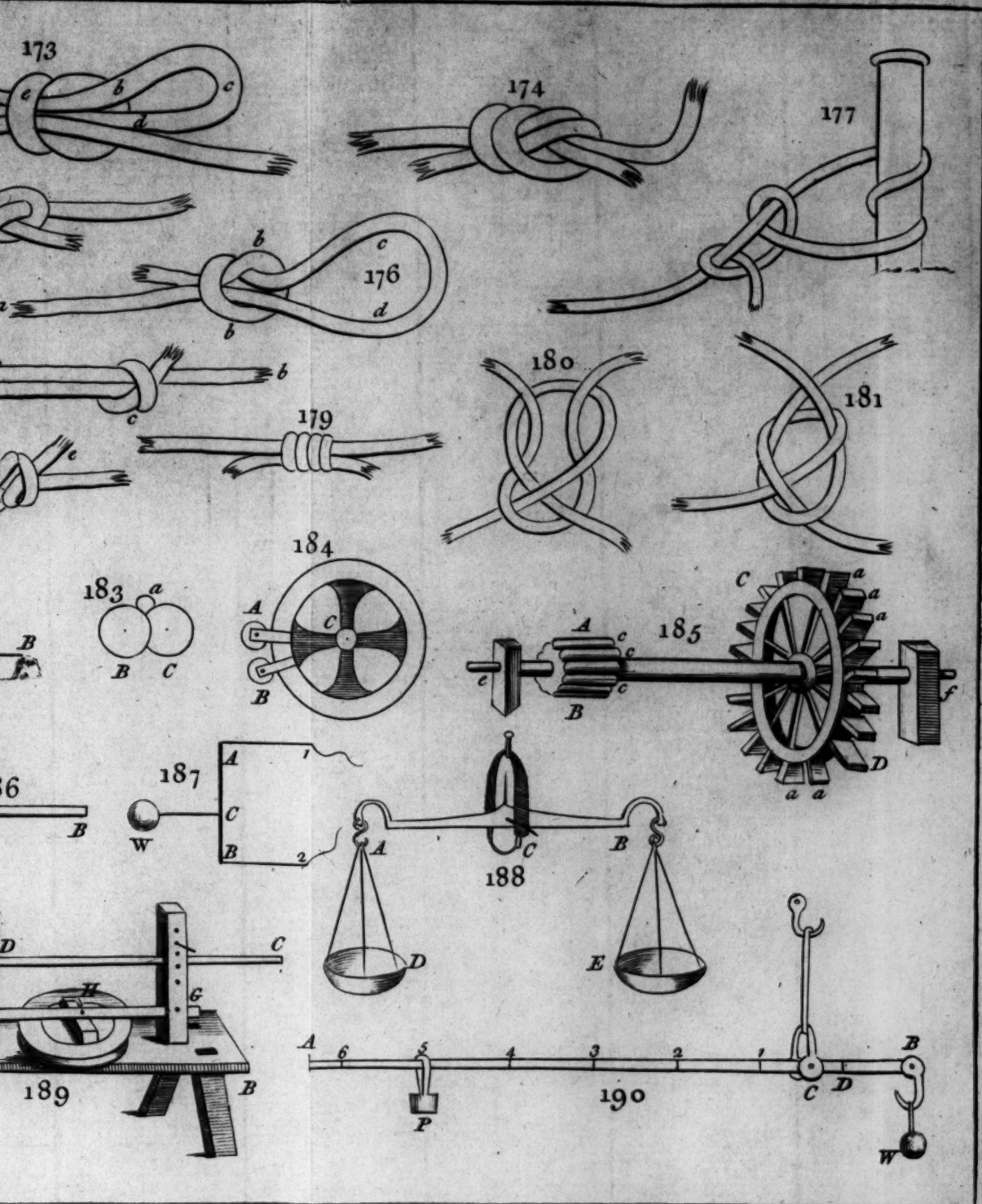
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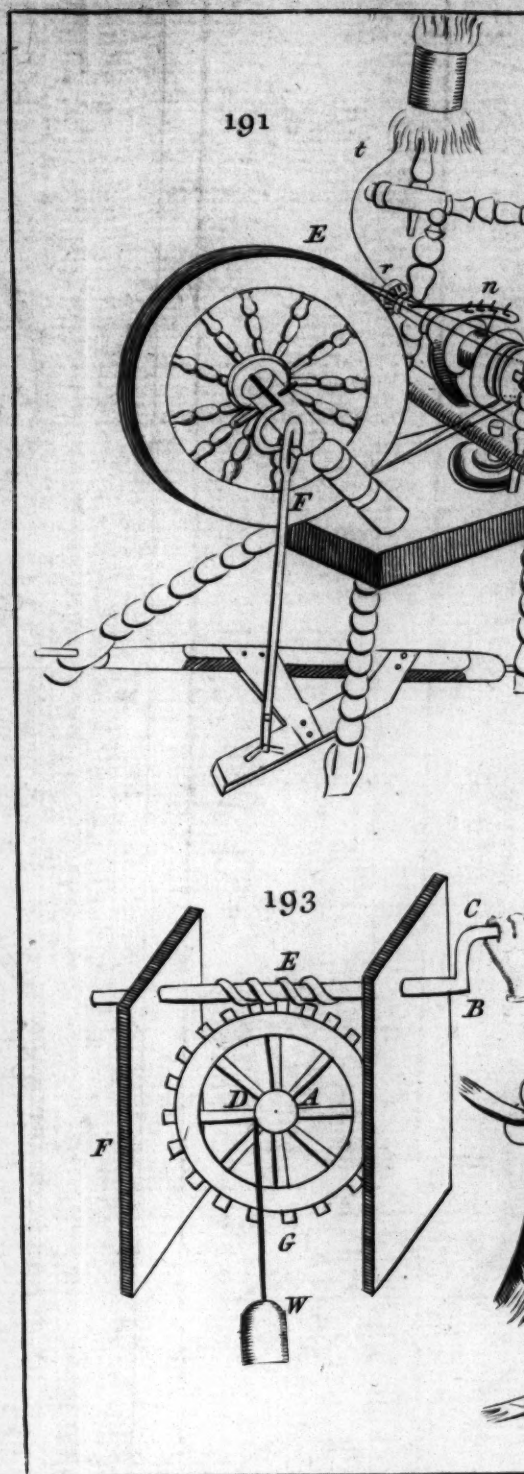


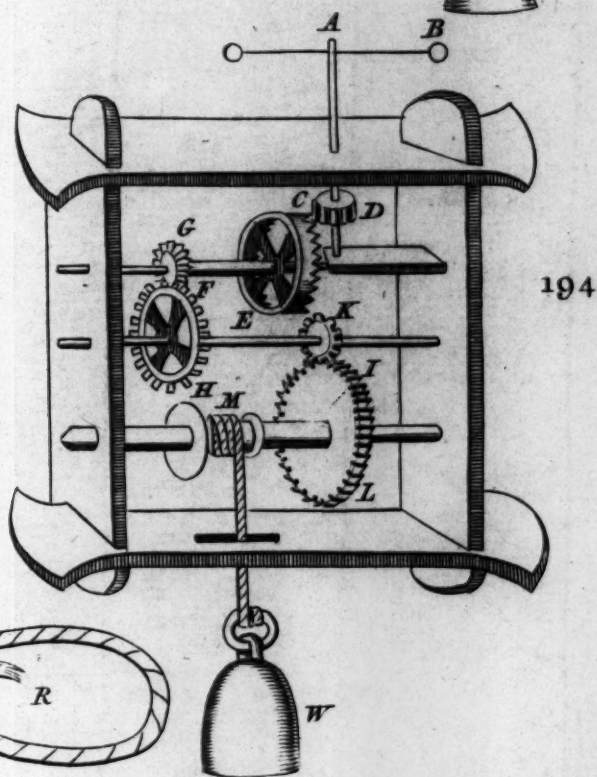
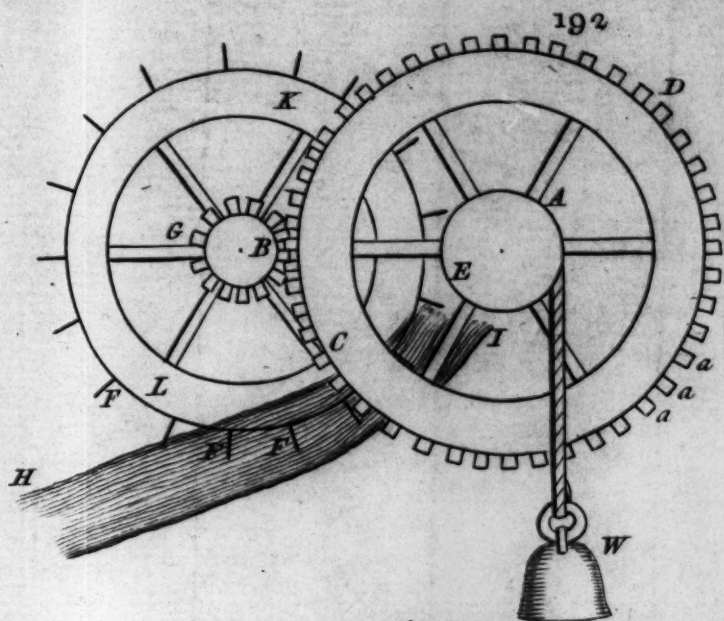
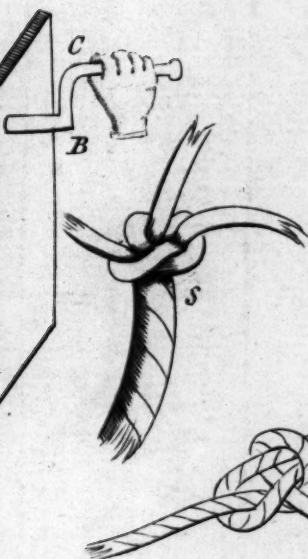
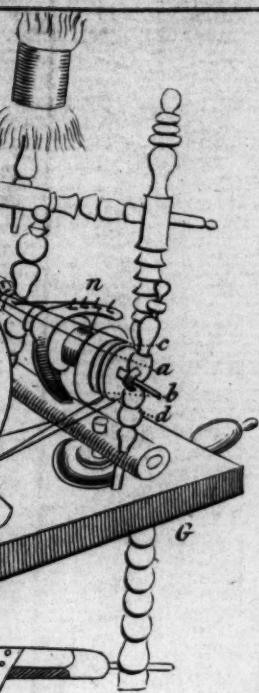
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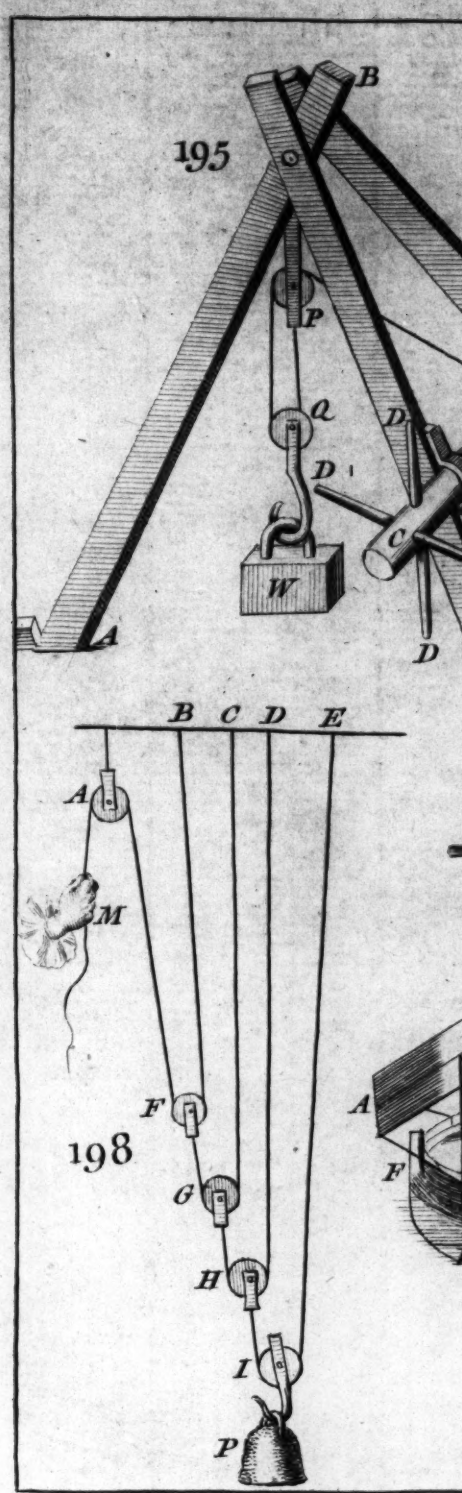
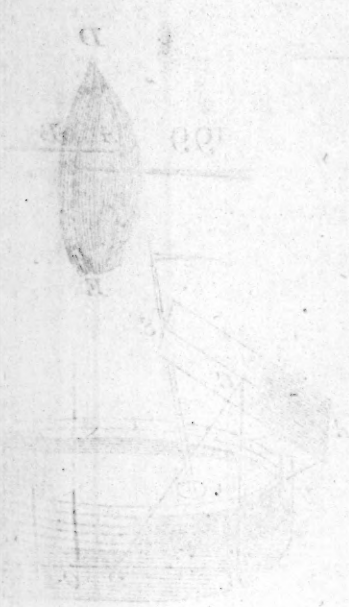
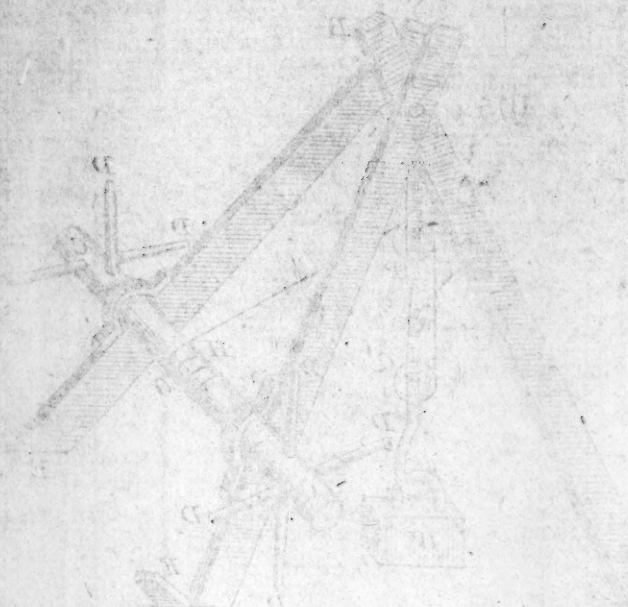
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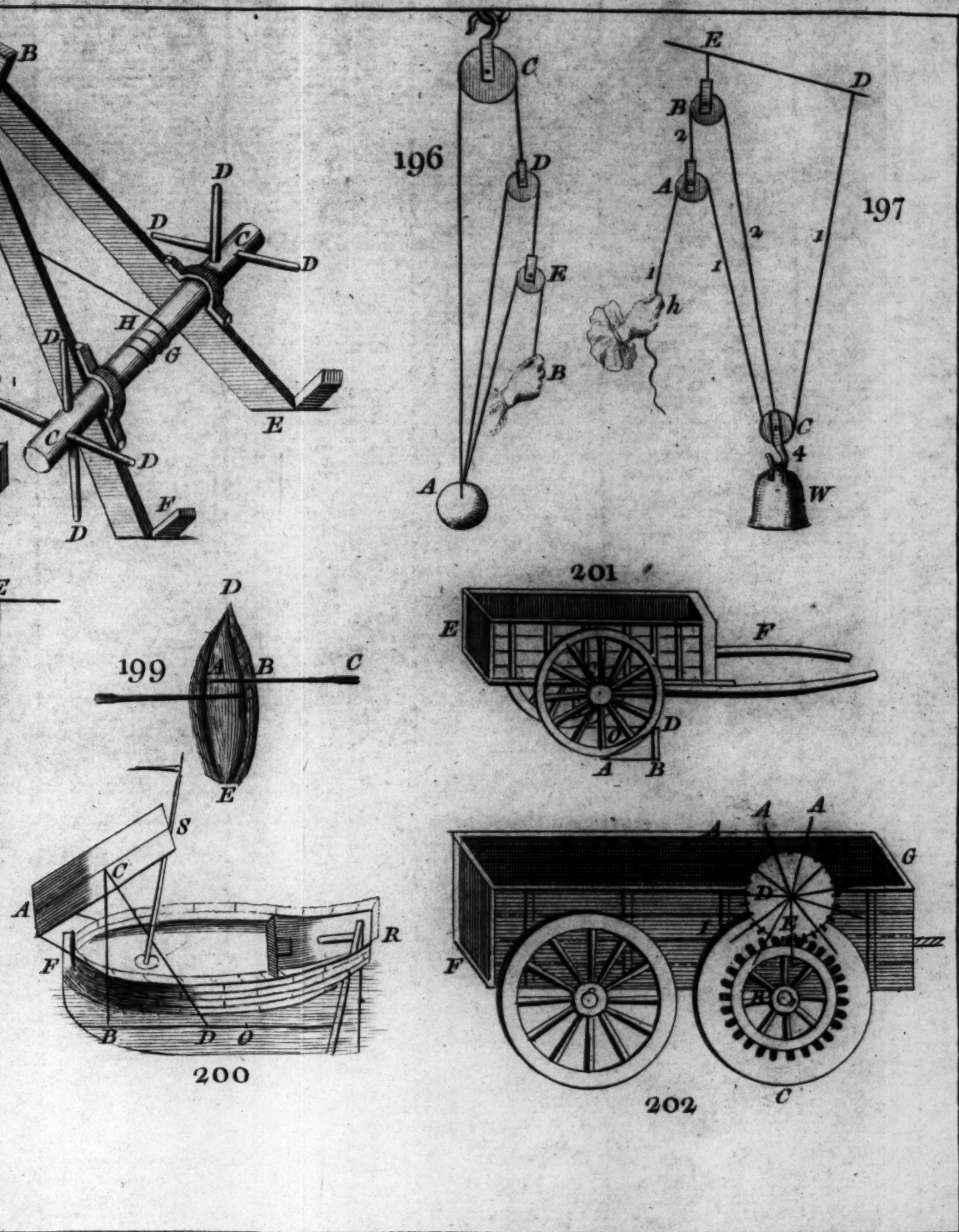


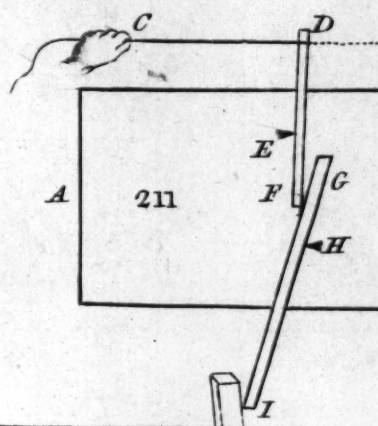
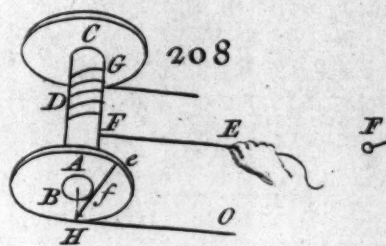
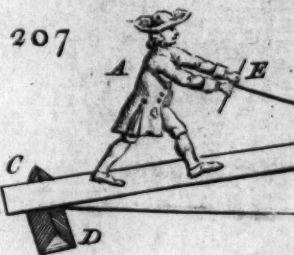
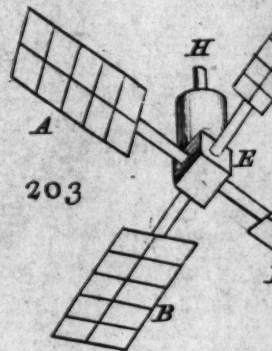


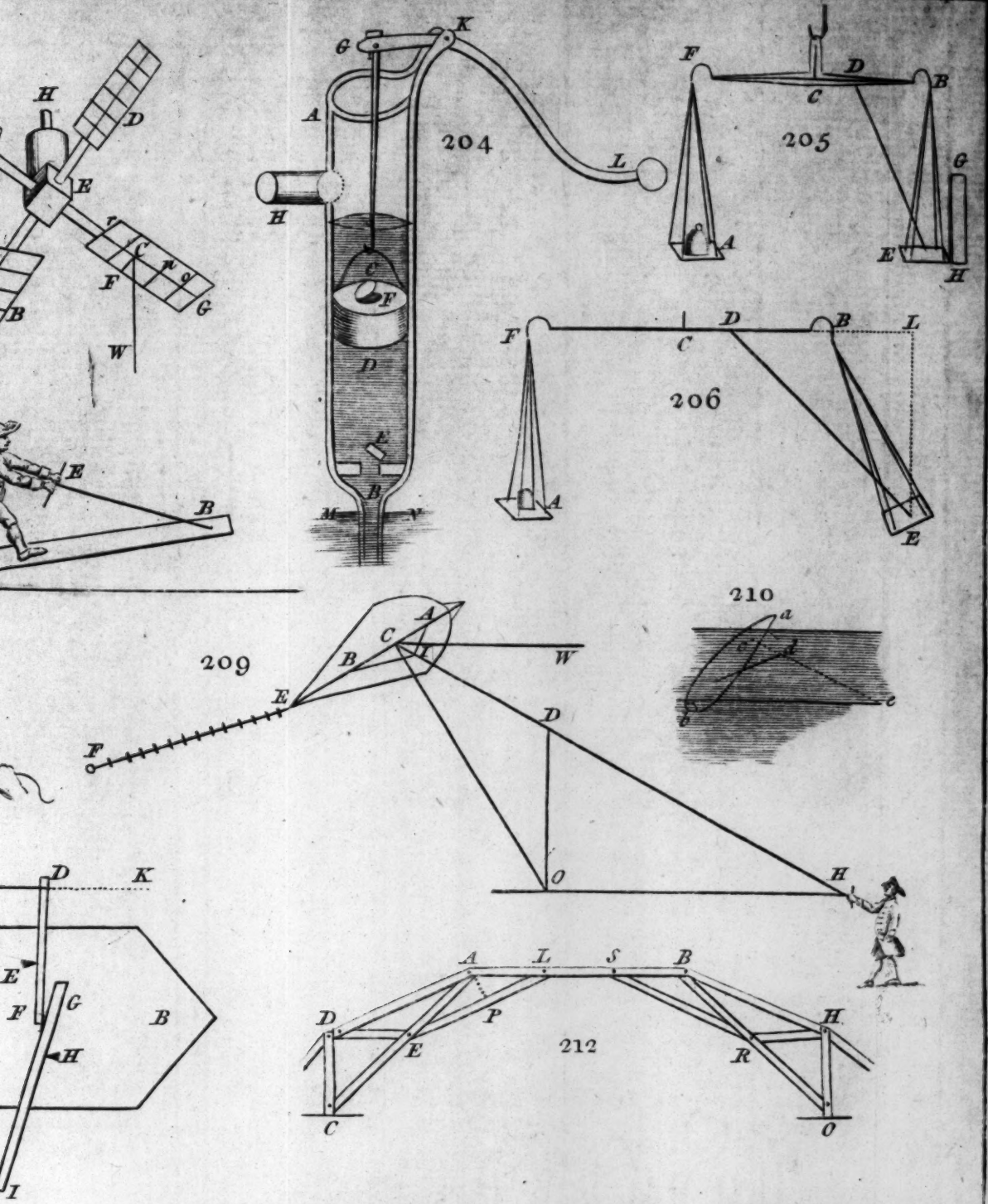


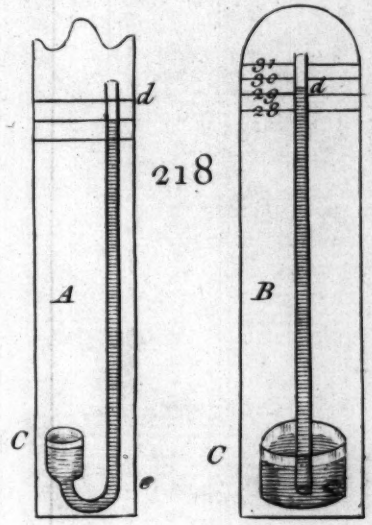
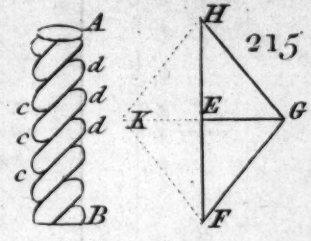
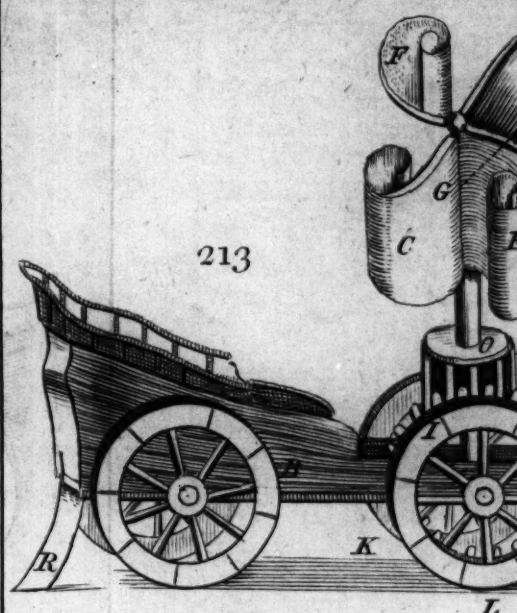
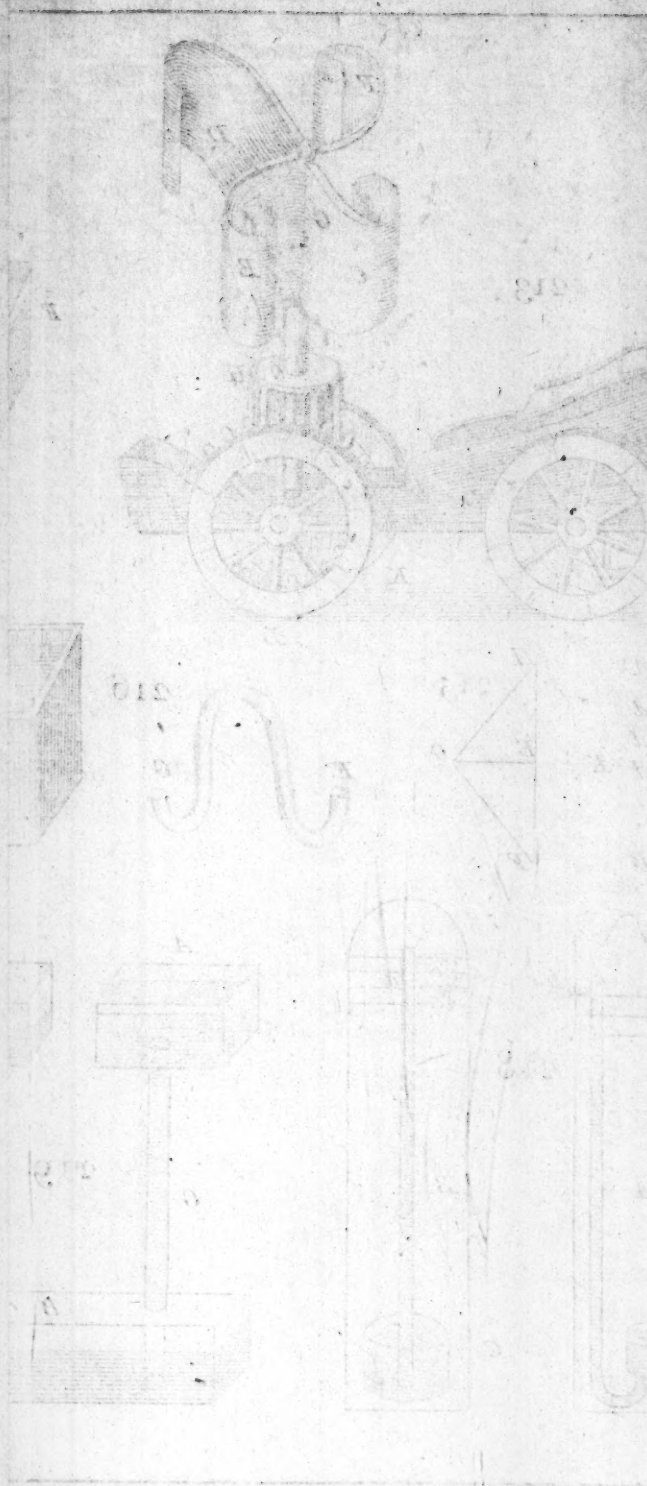


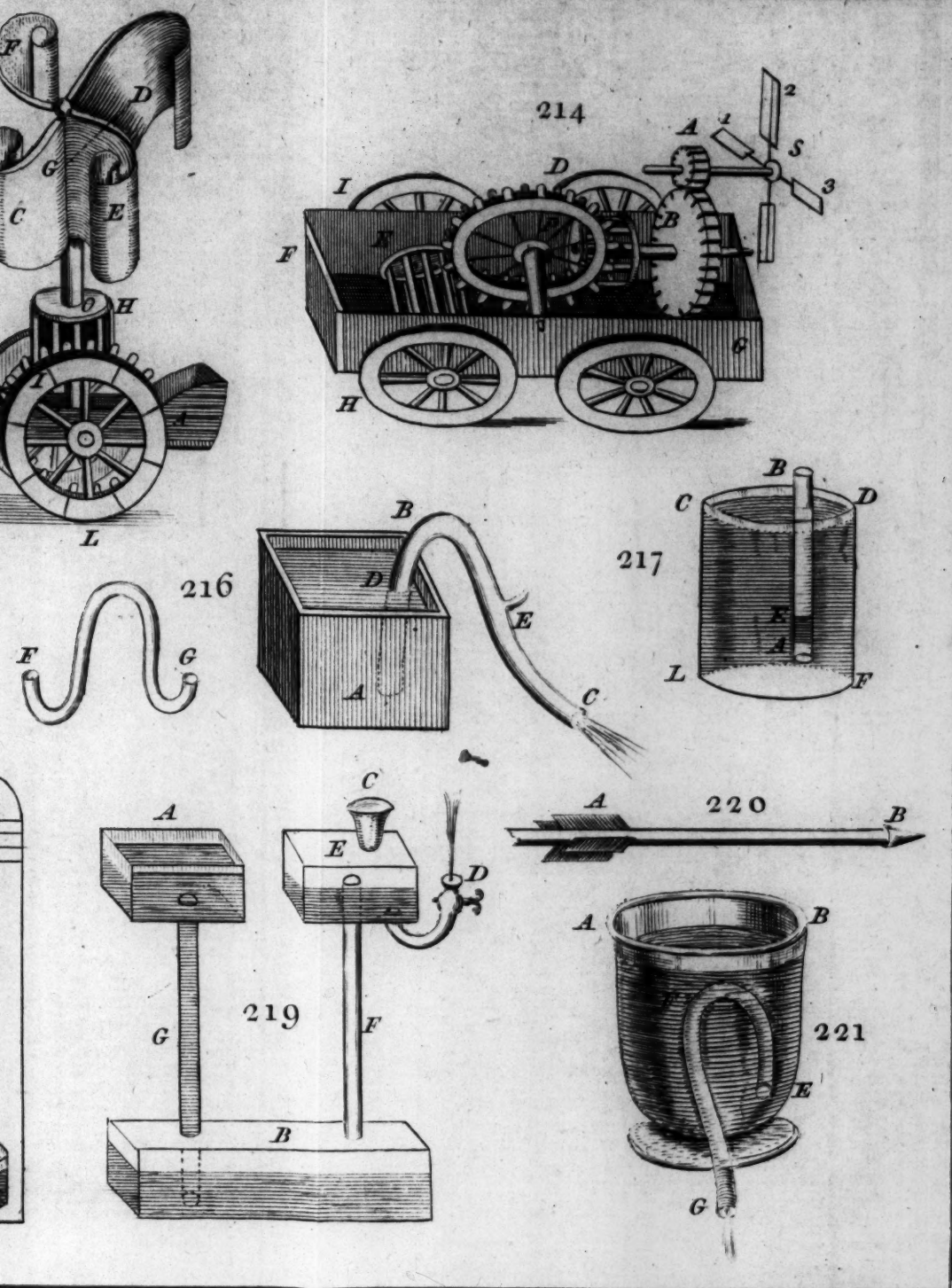


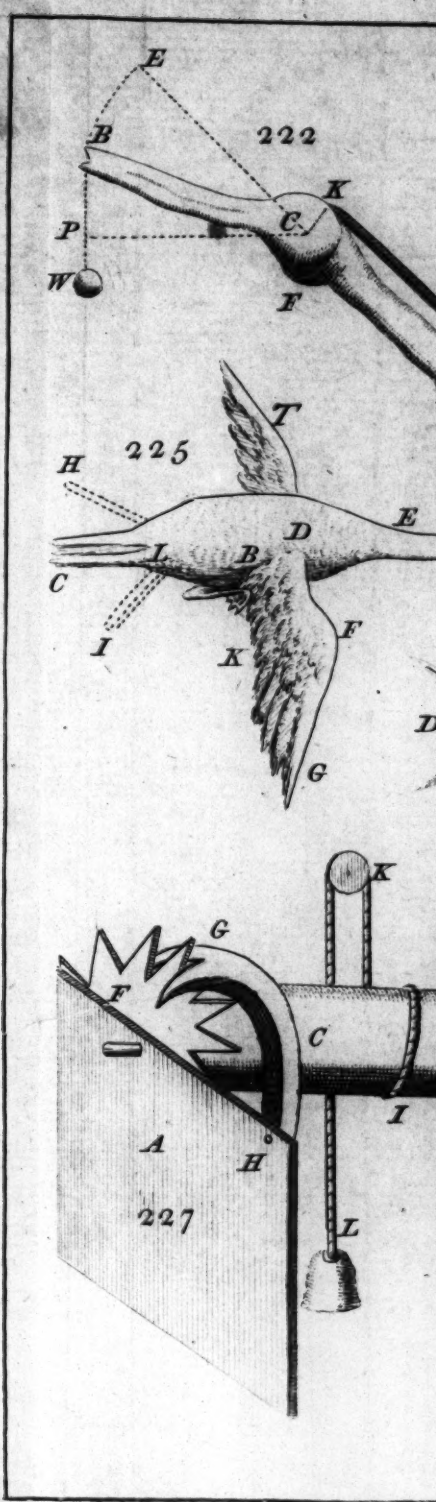


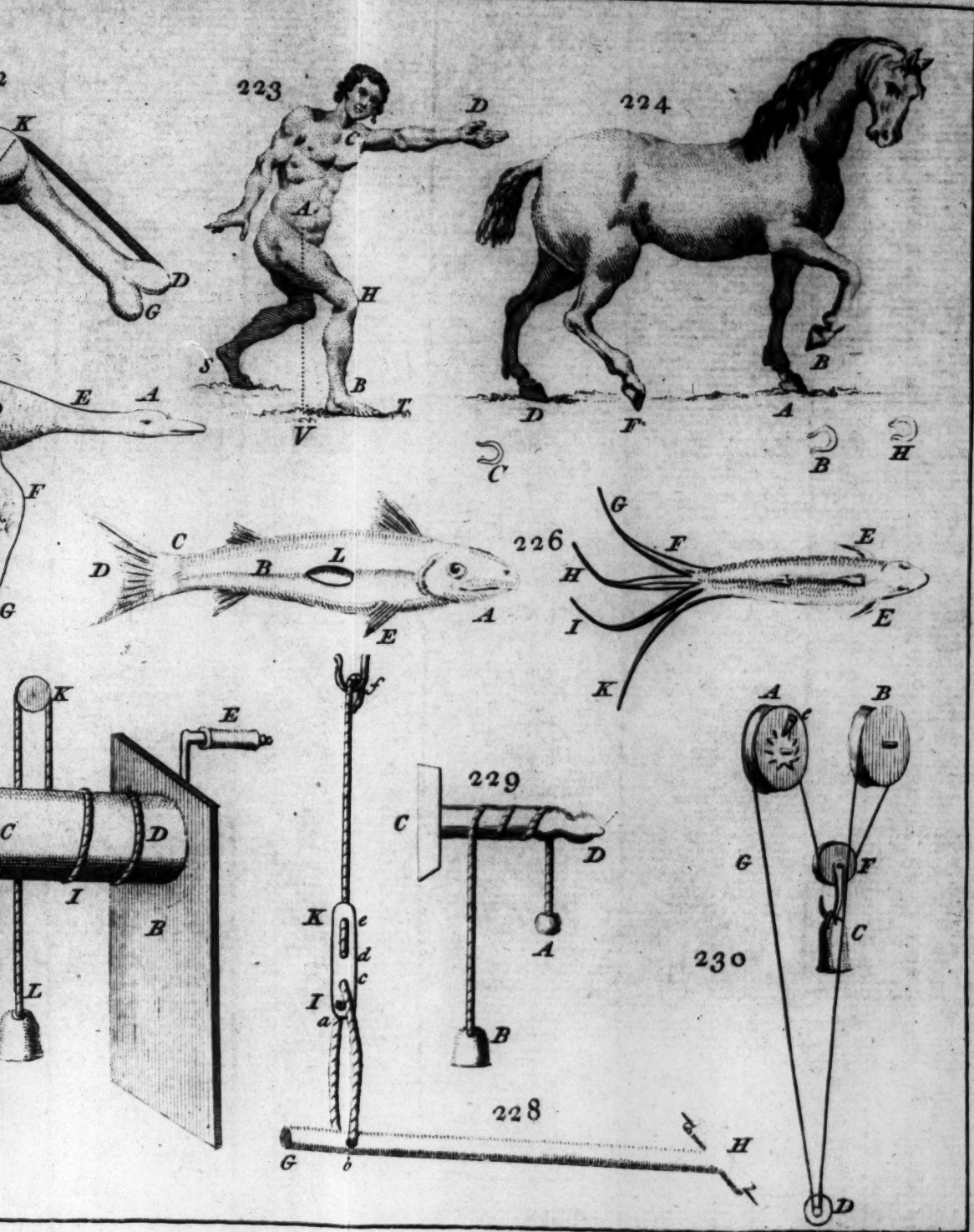


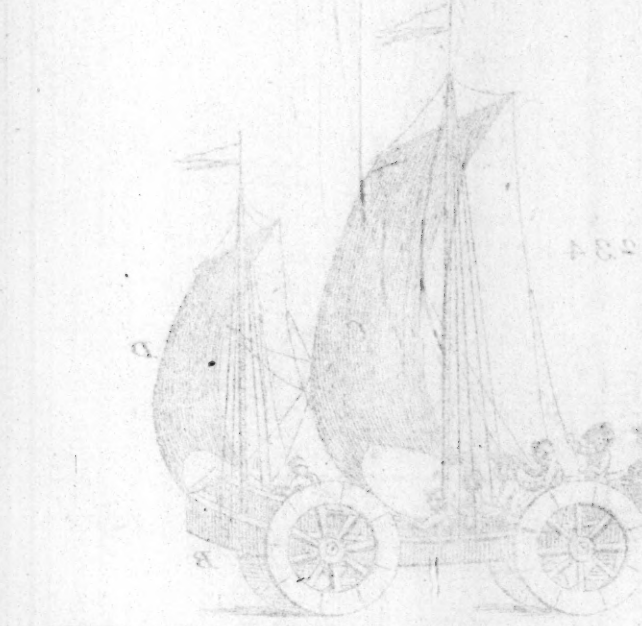
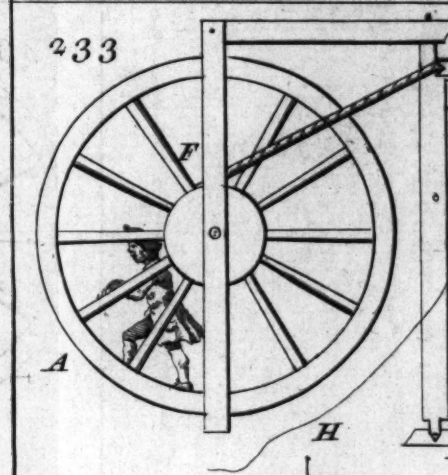
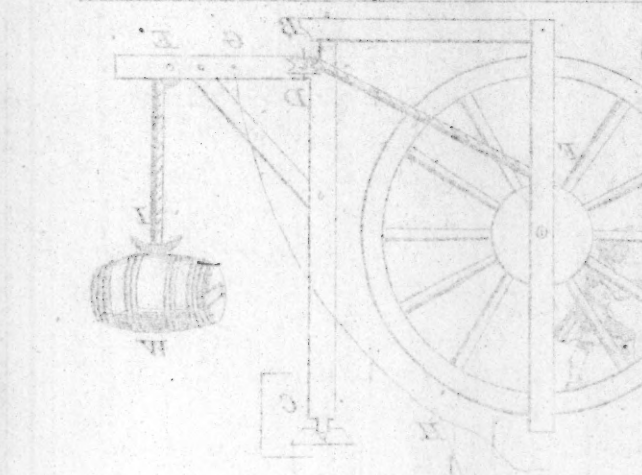
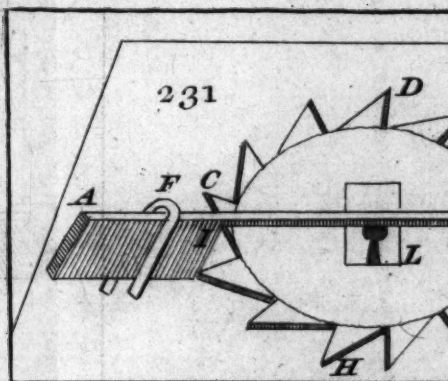
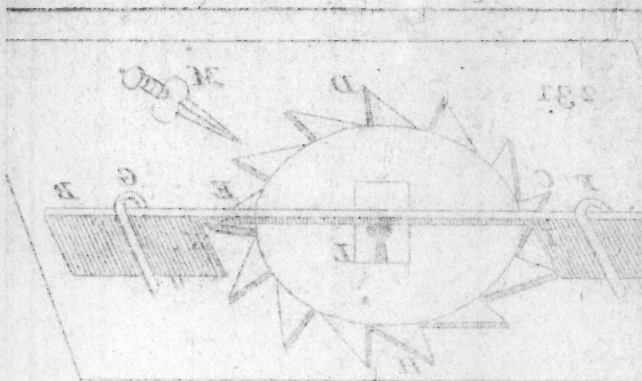


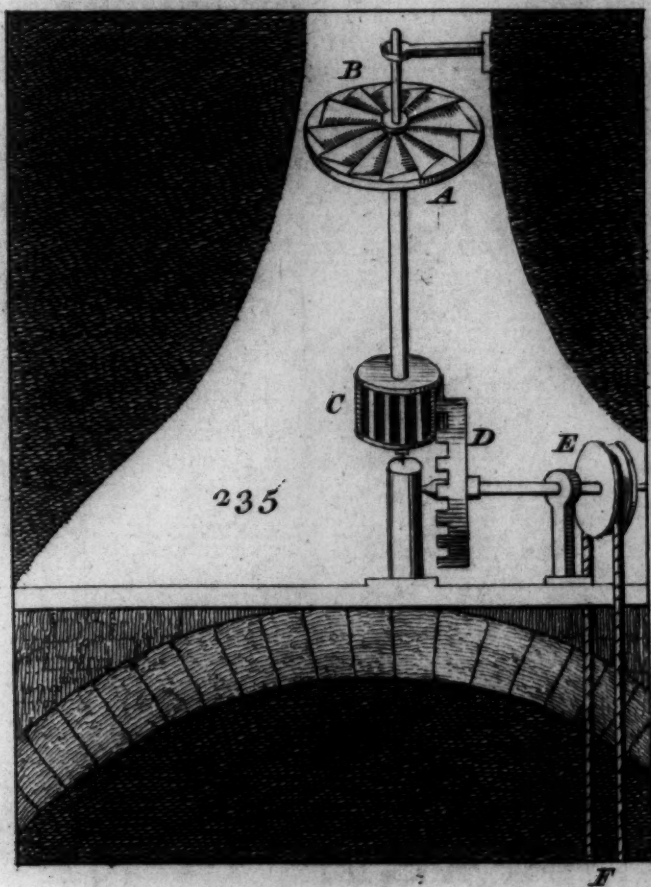
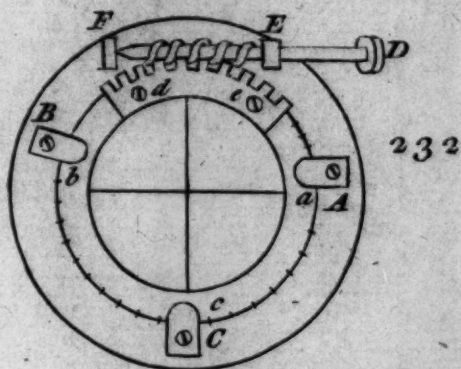
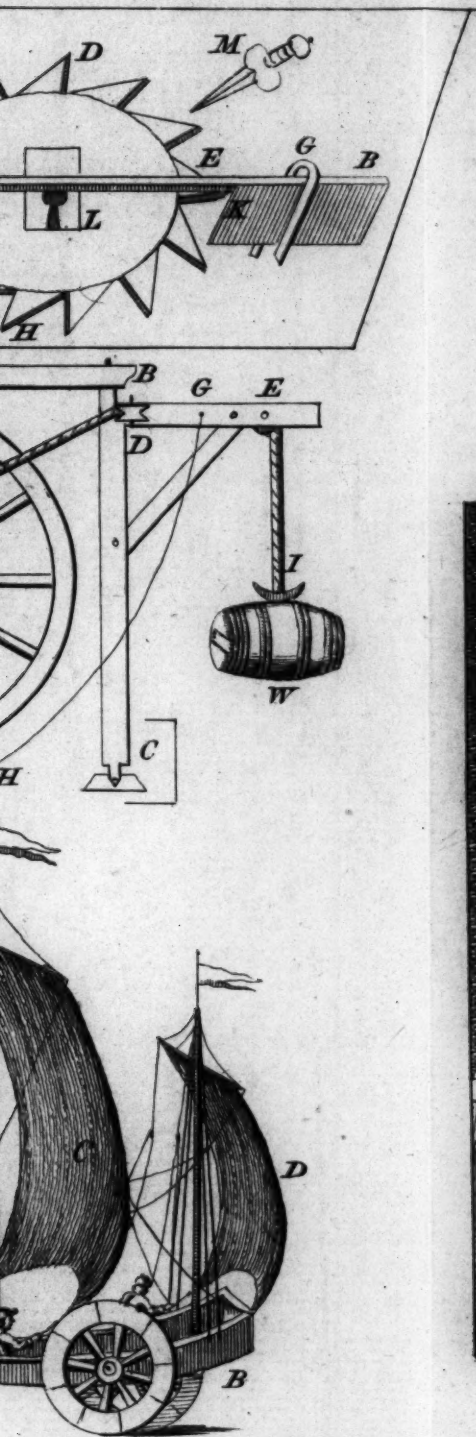


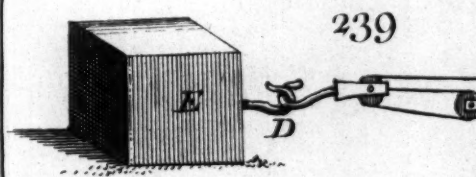
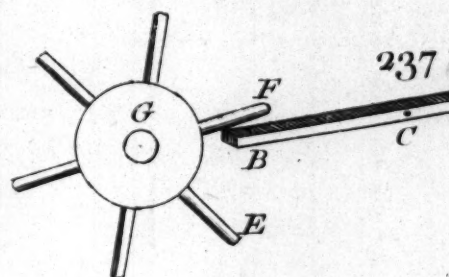
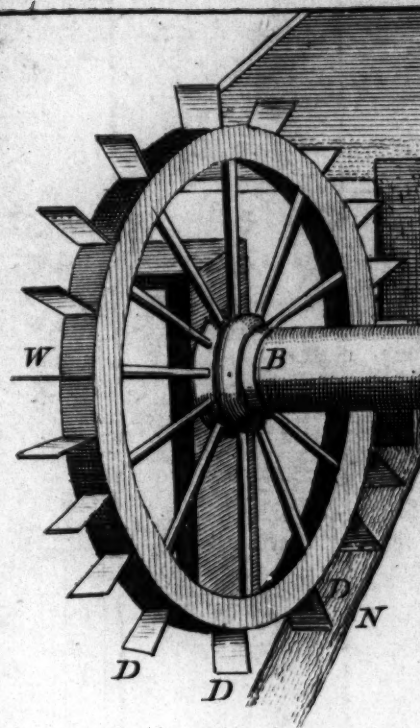


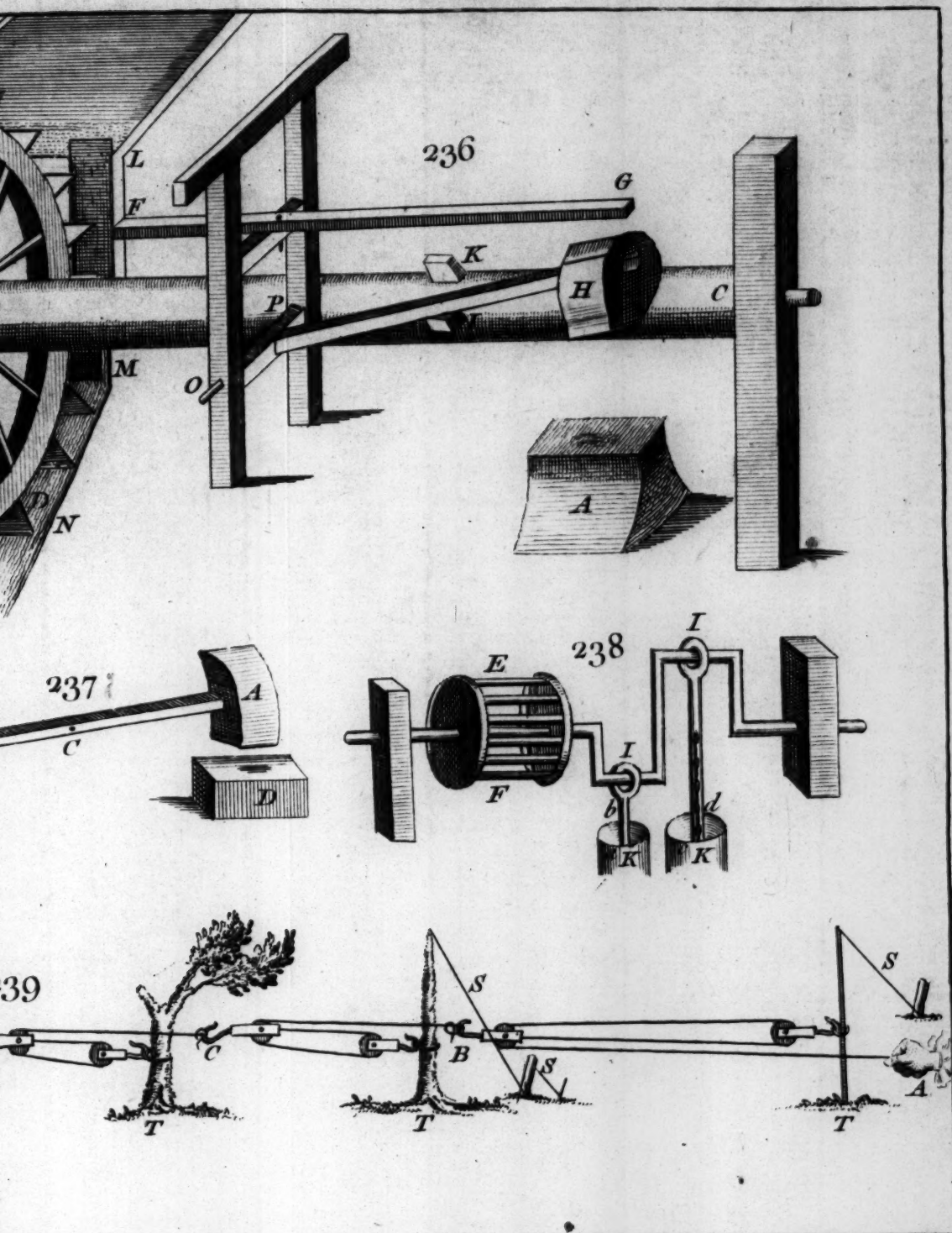




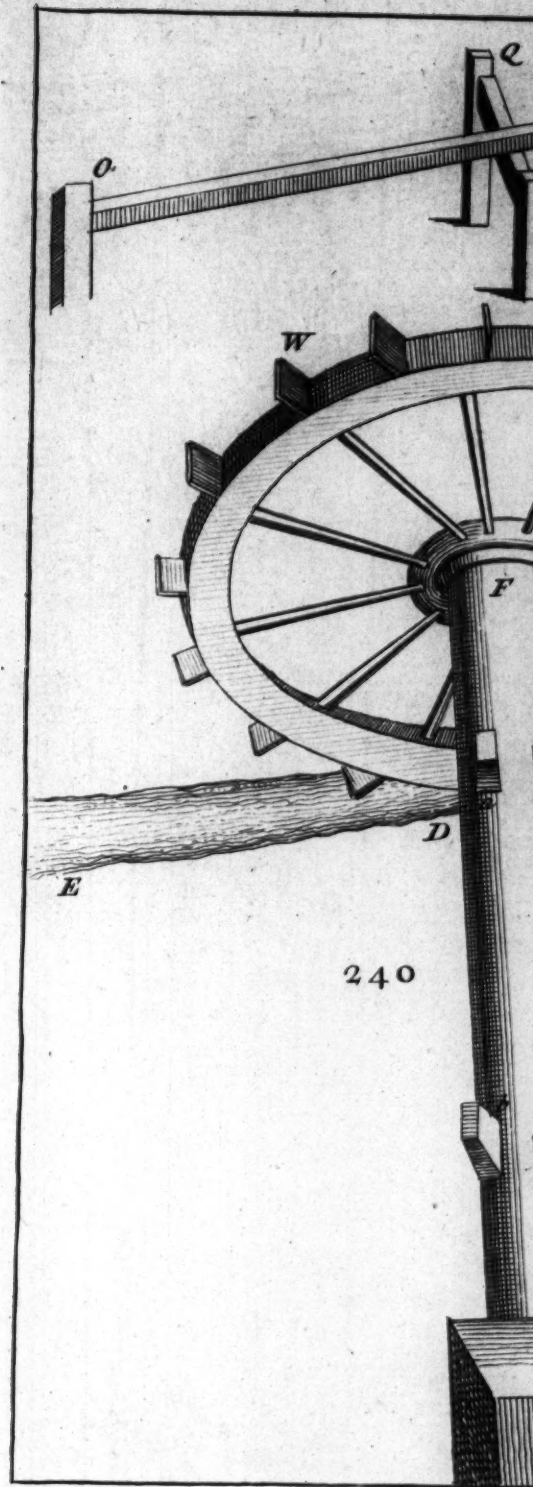
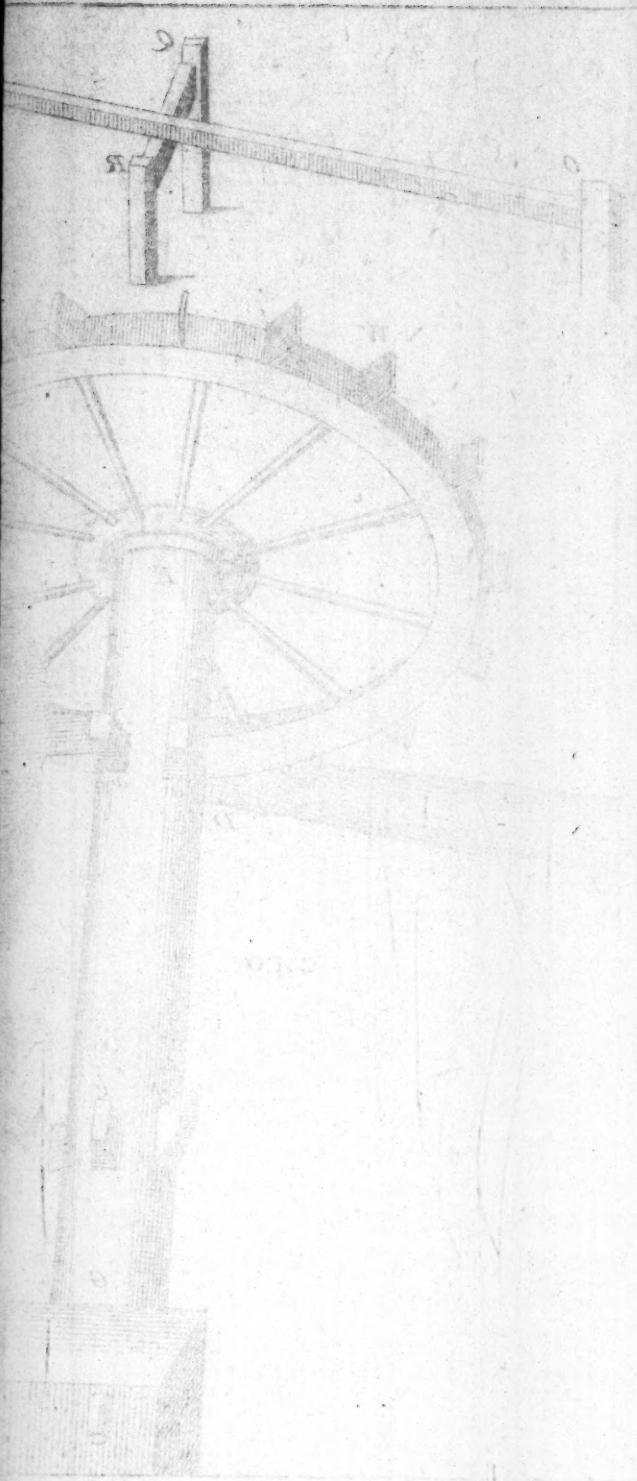


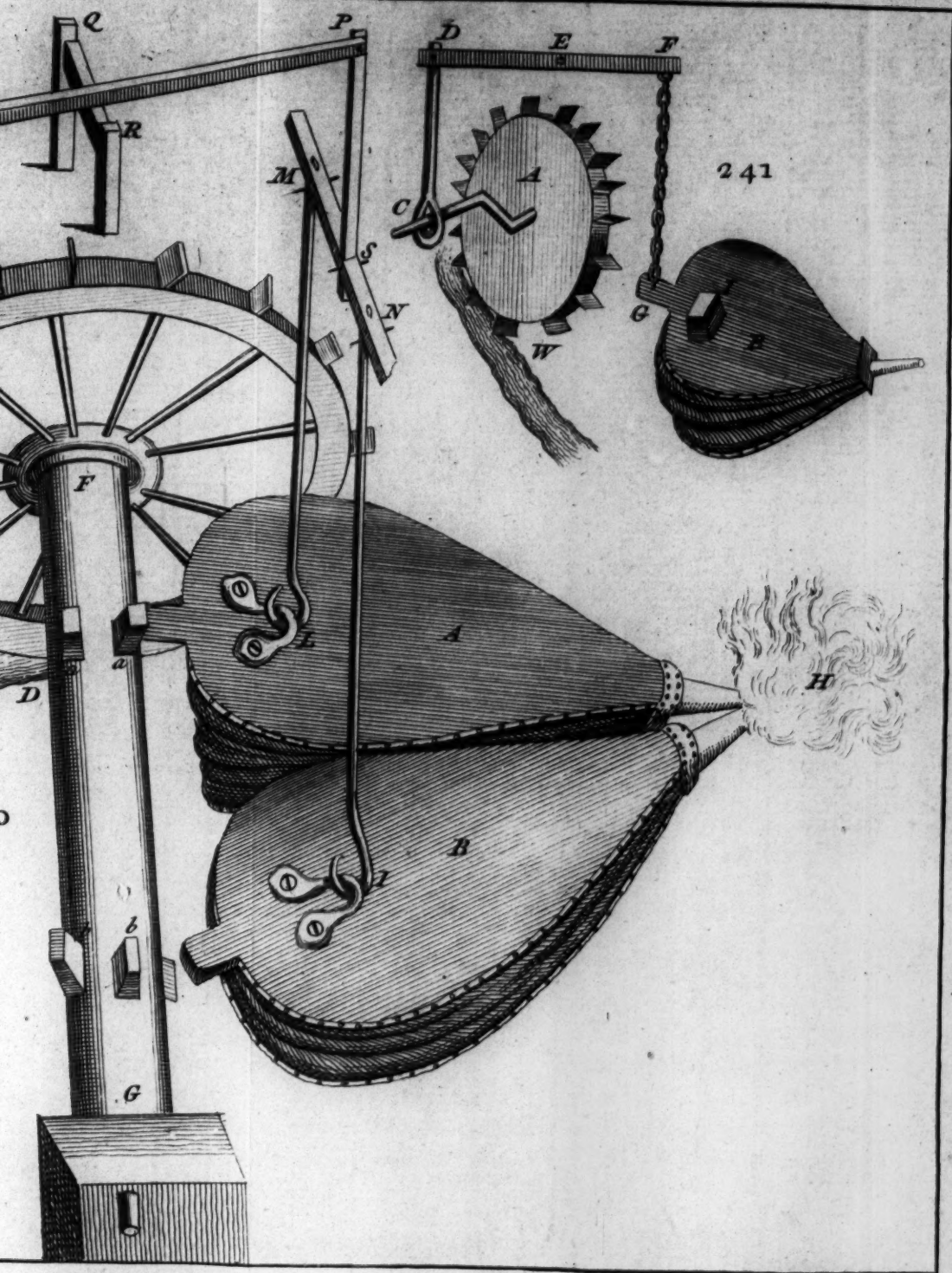




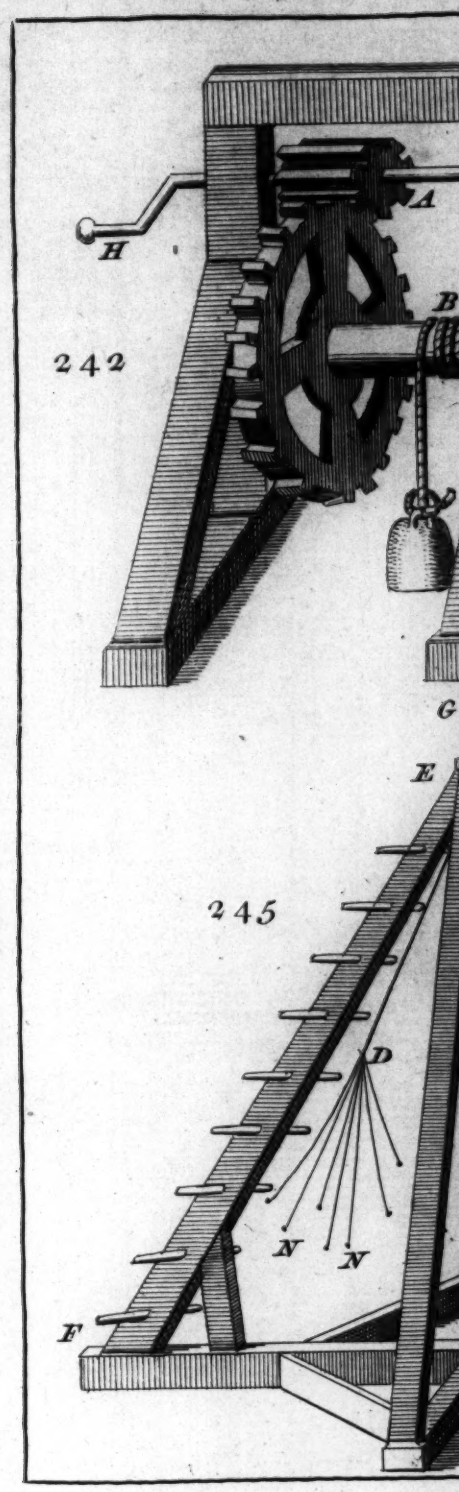
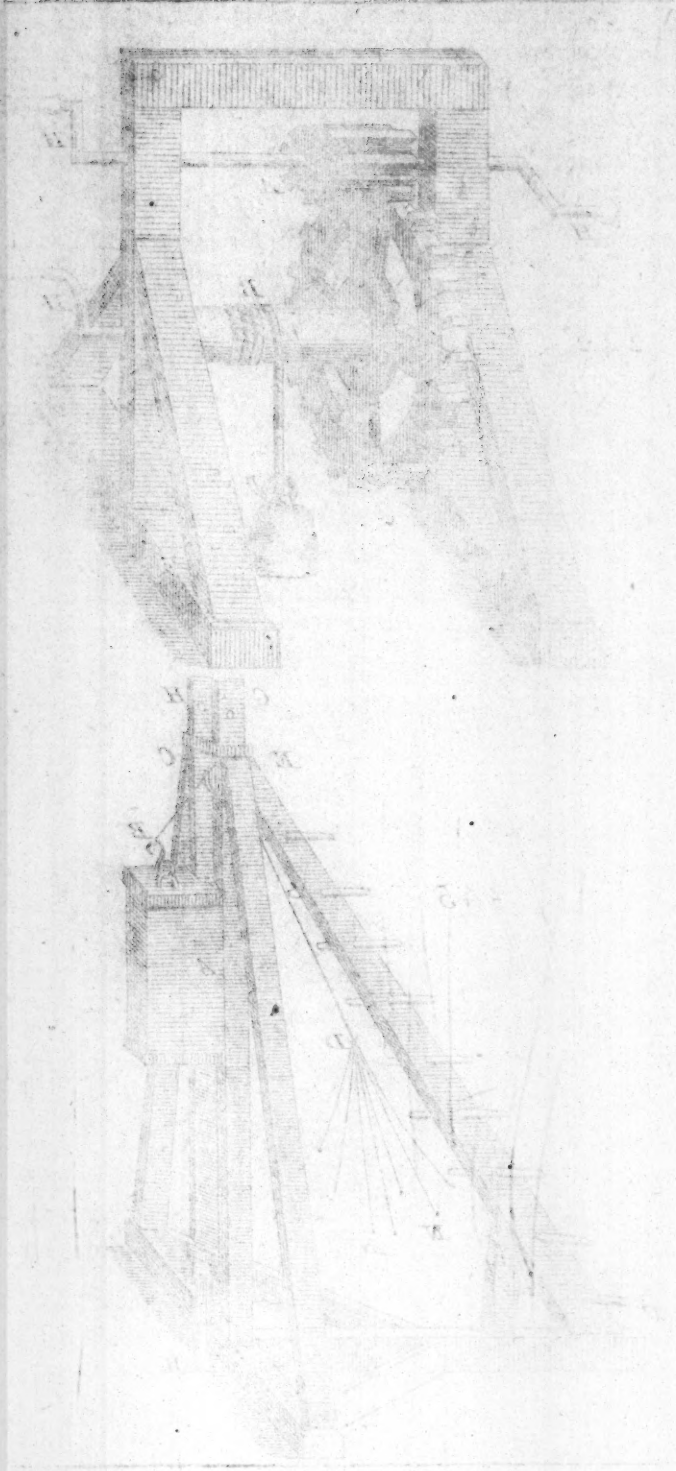


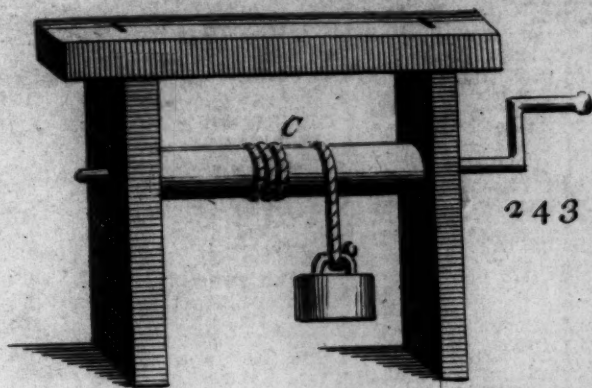
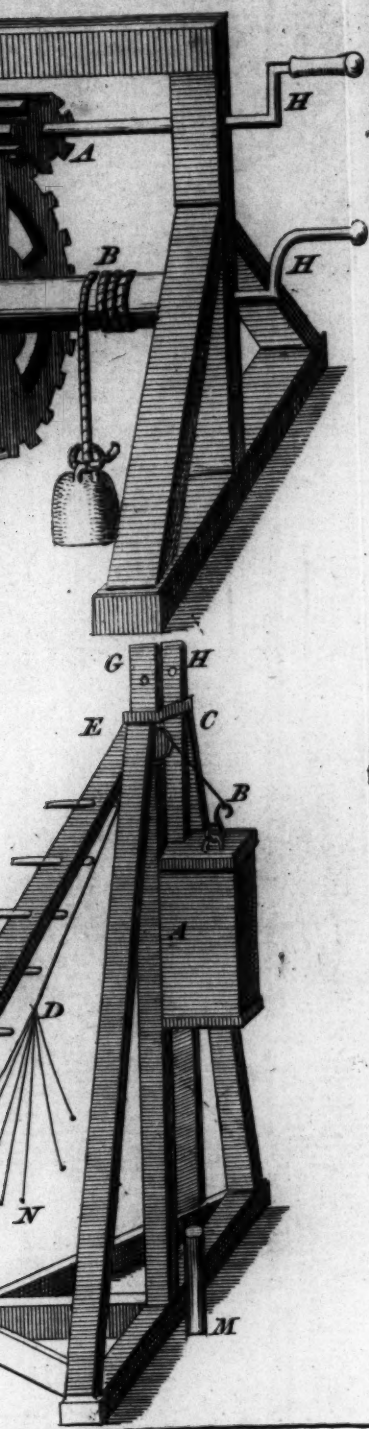
Pl. XVI. the End.



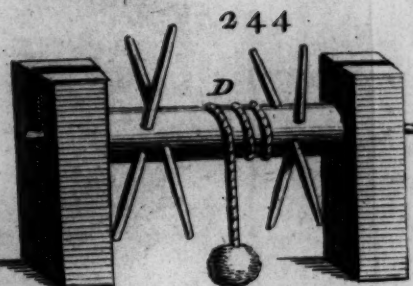


Pl. XVII. the End

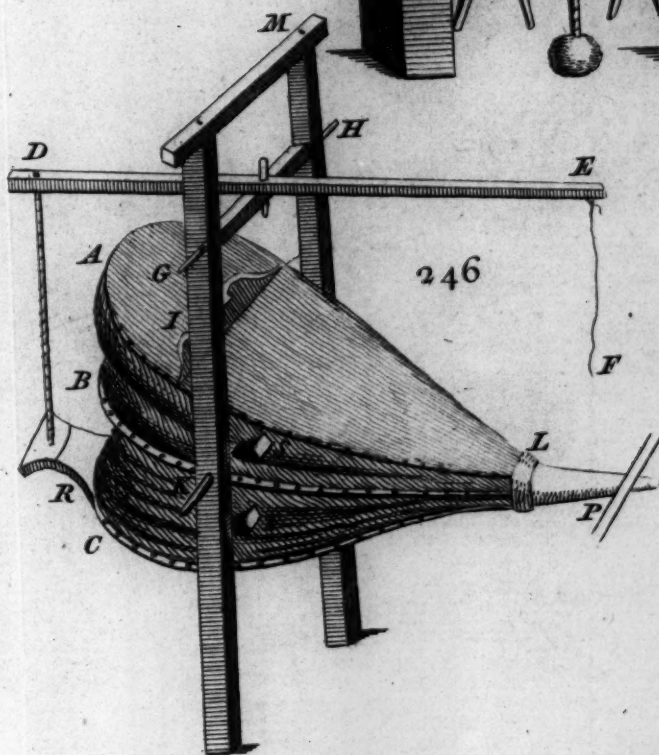




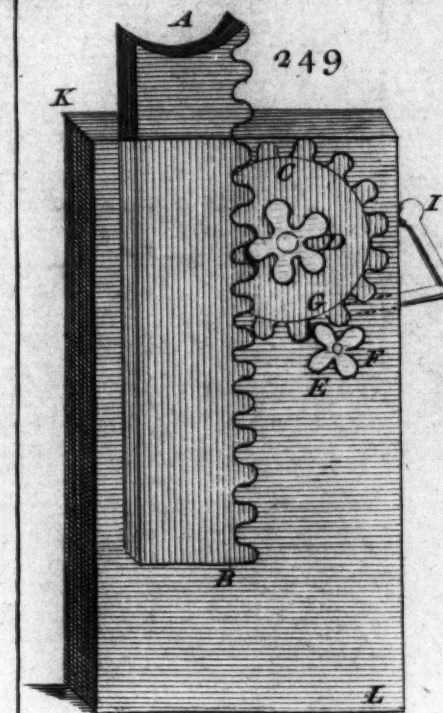
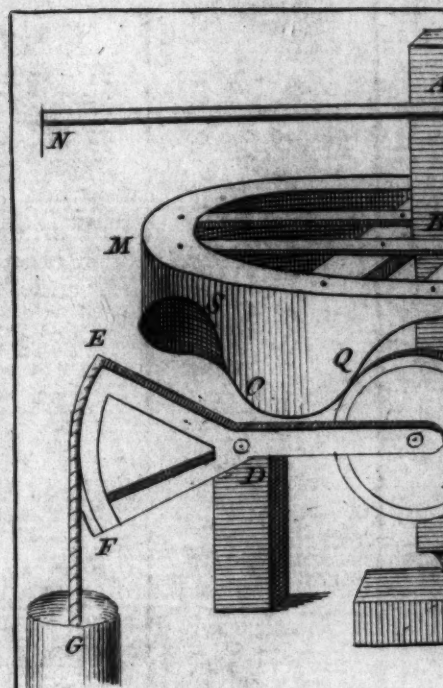
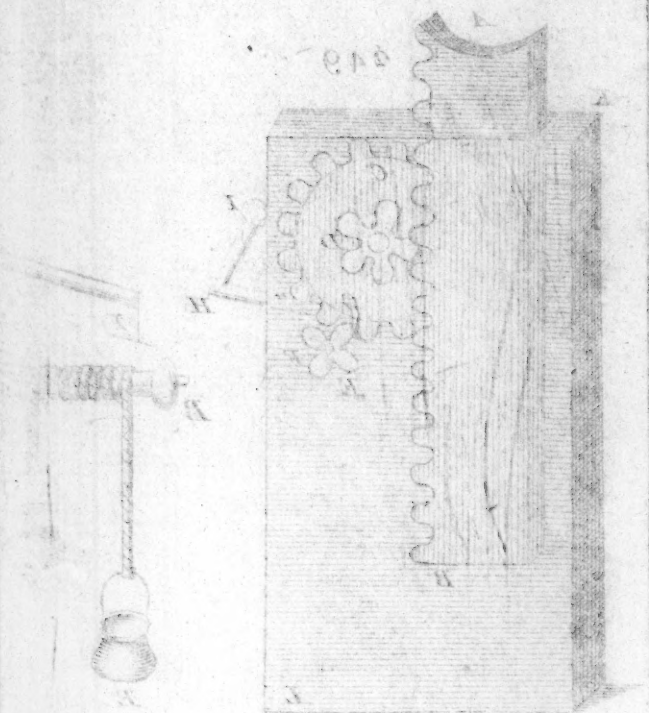
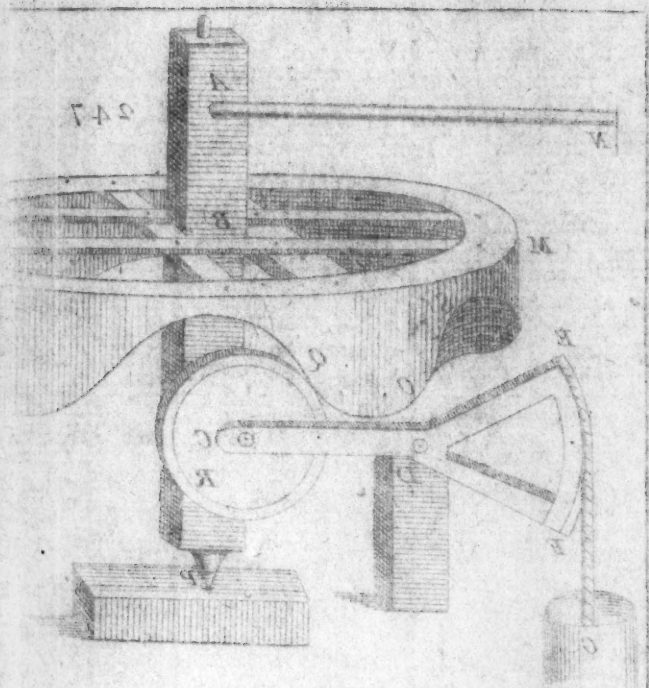
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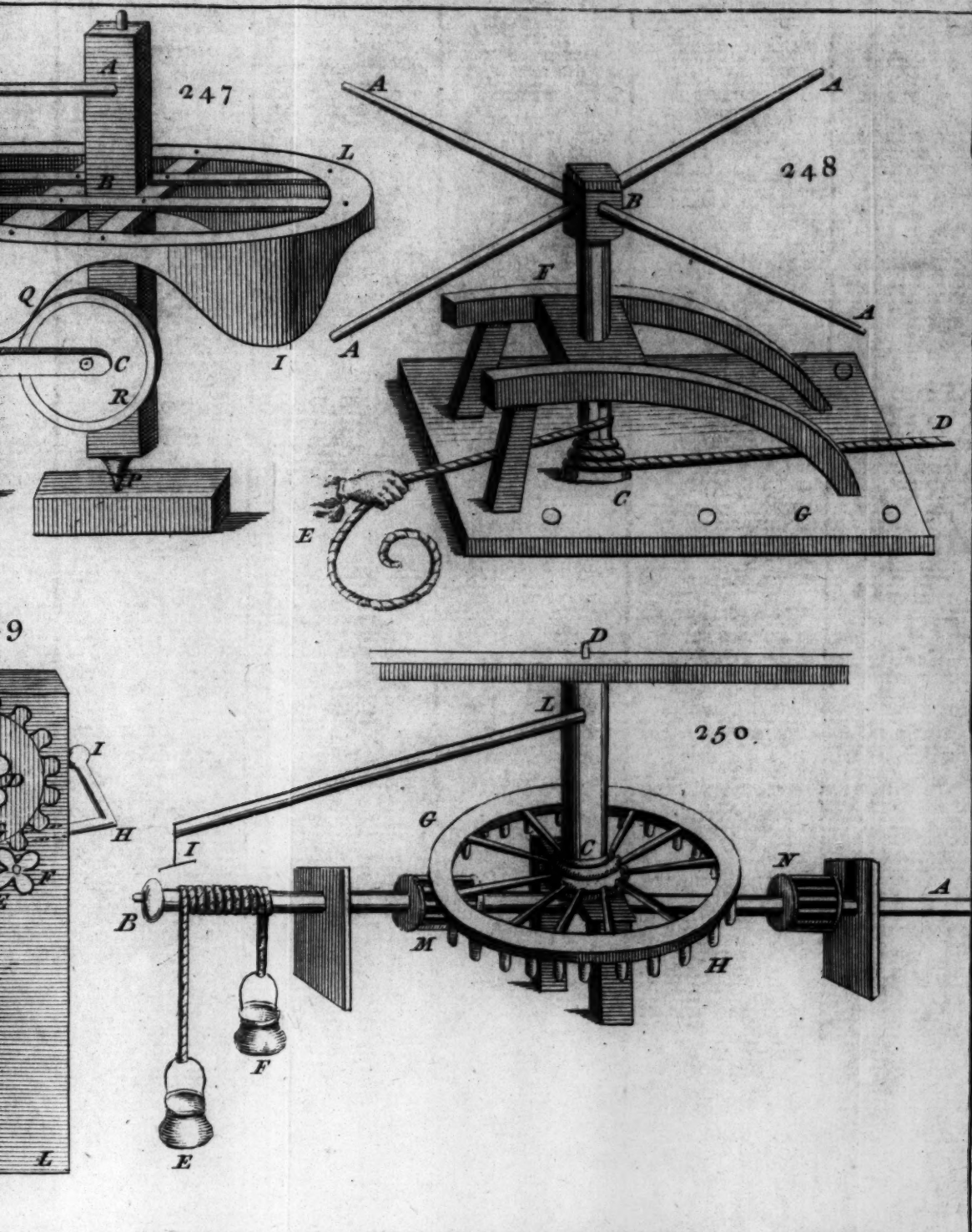


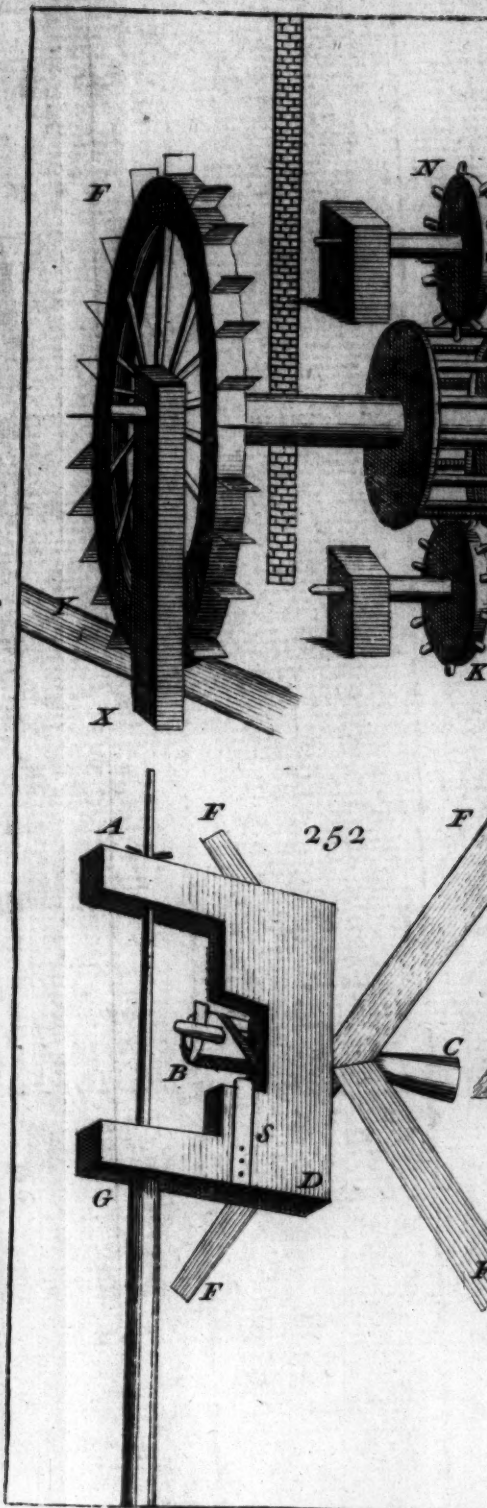
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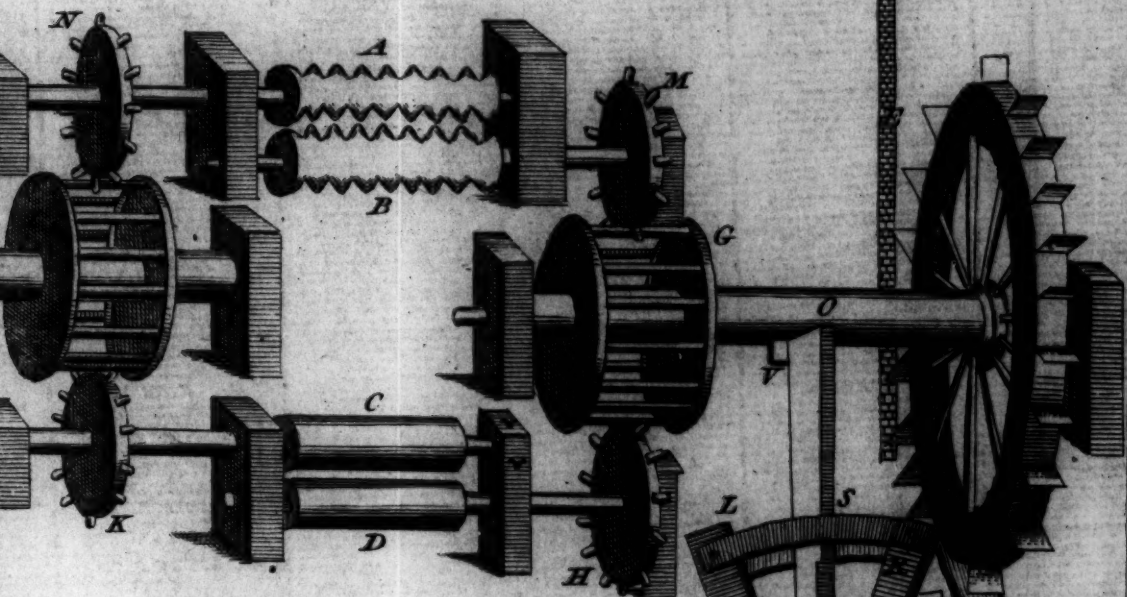
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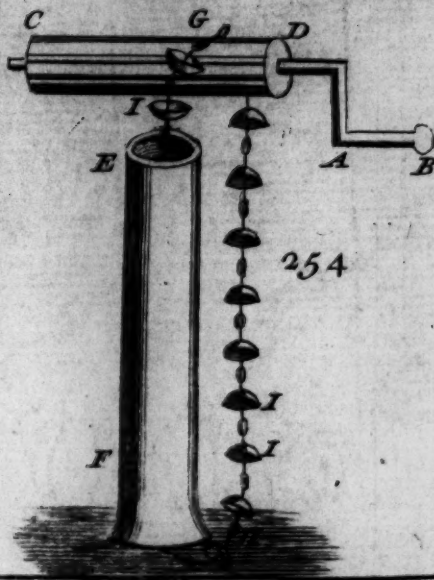
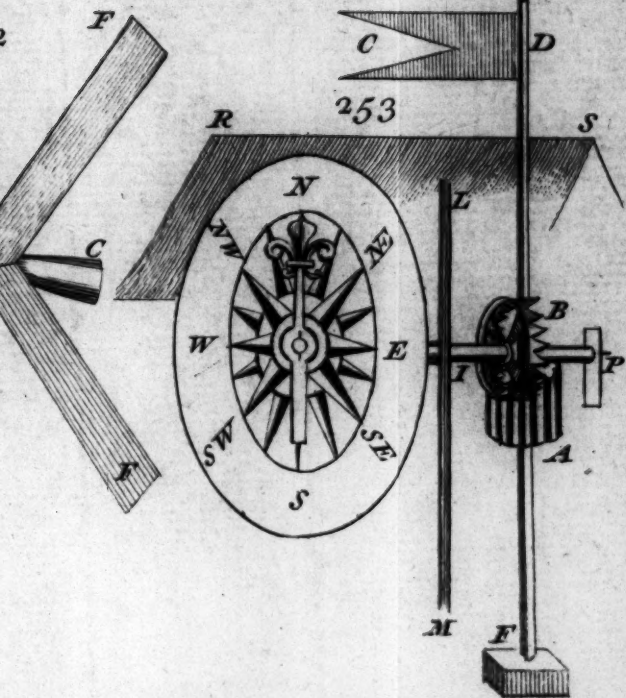




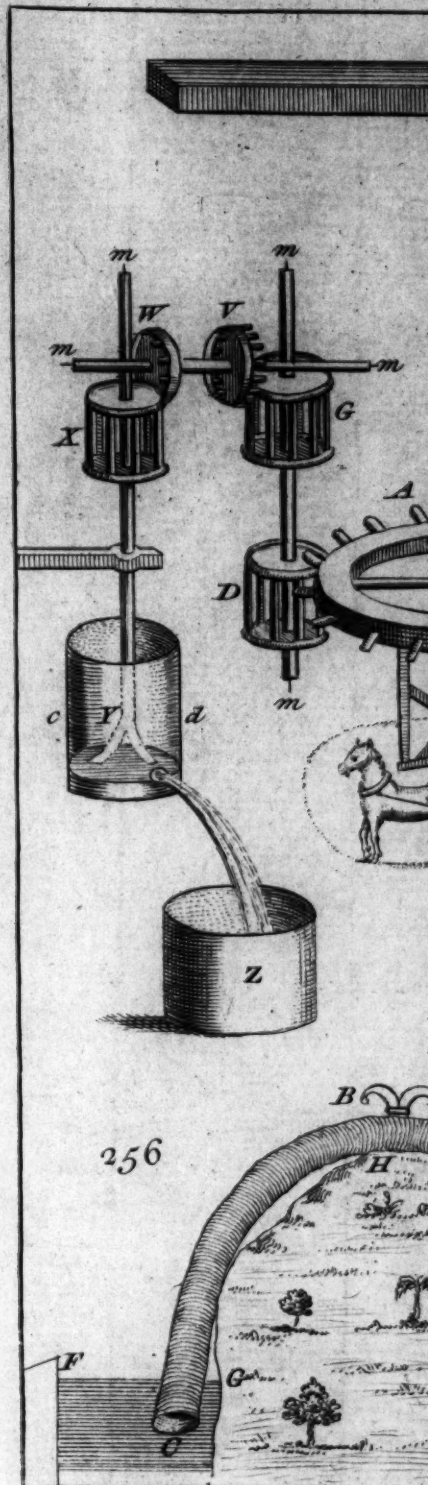
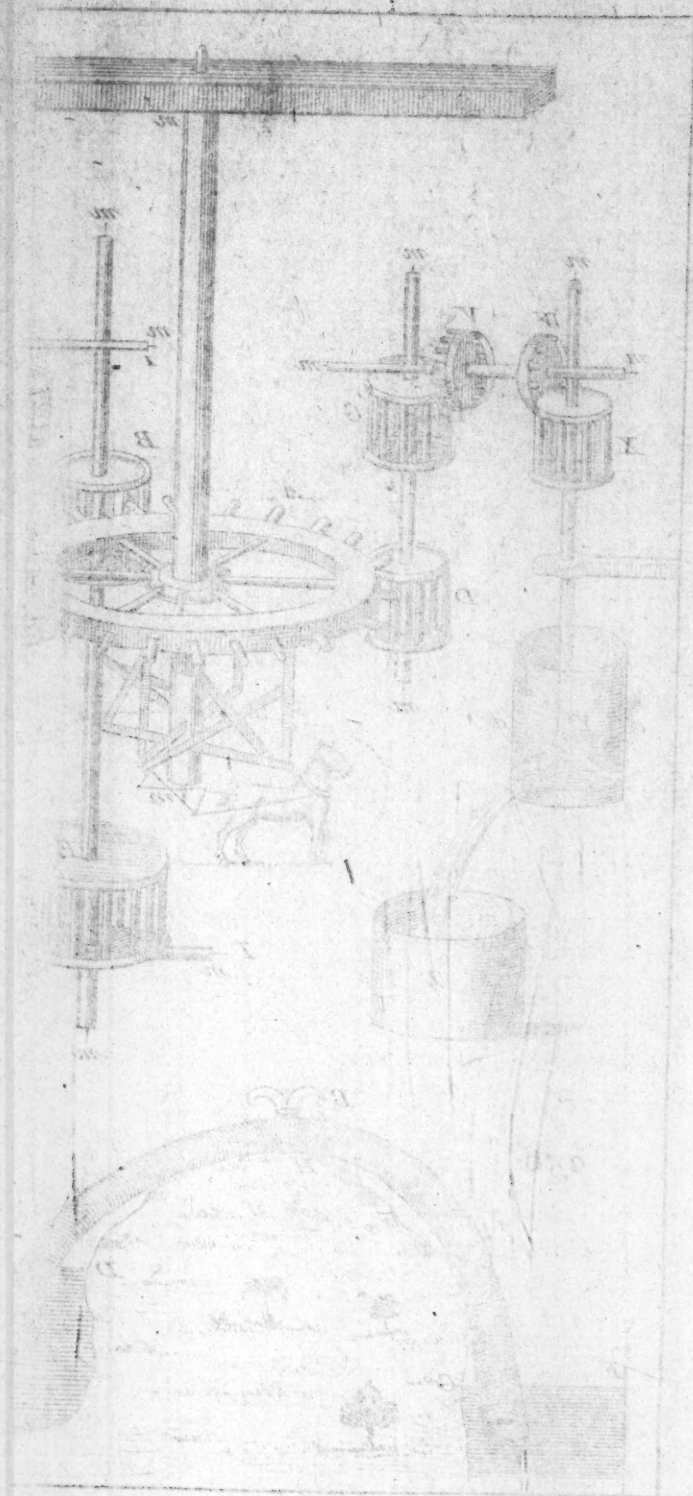
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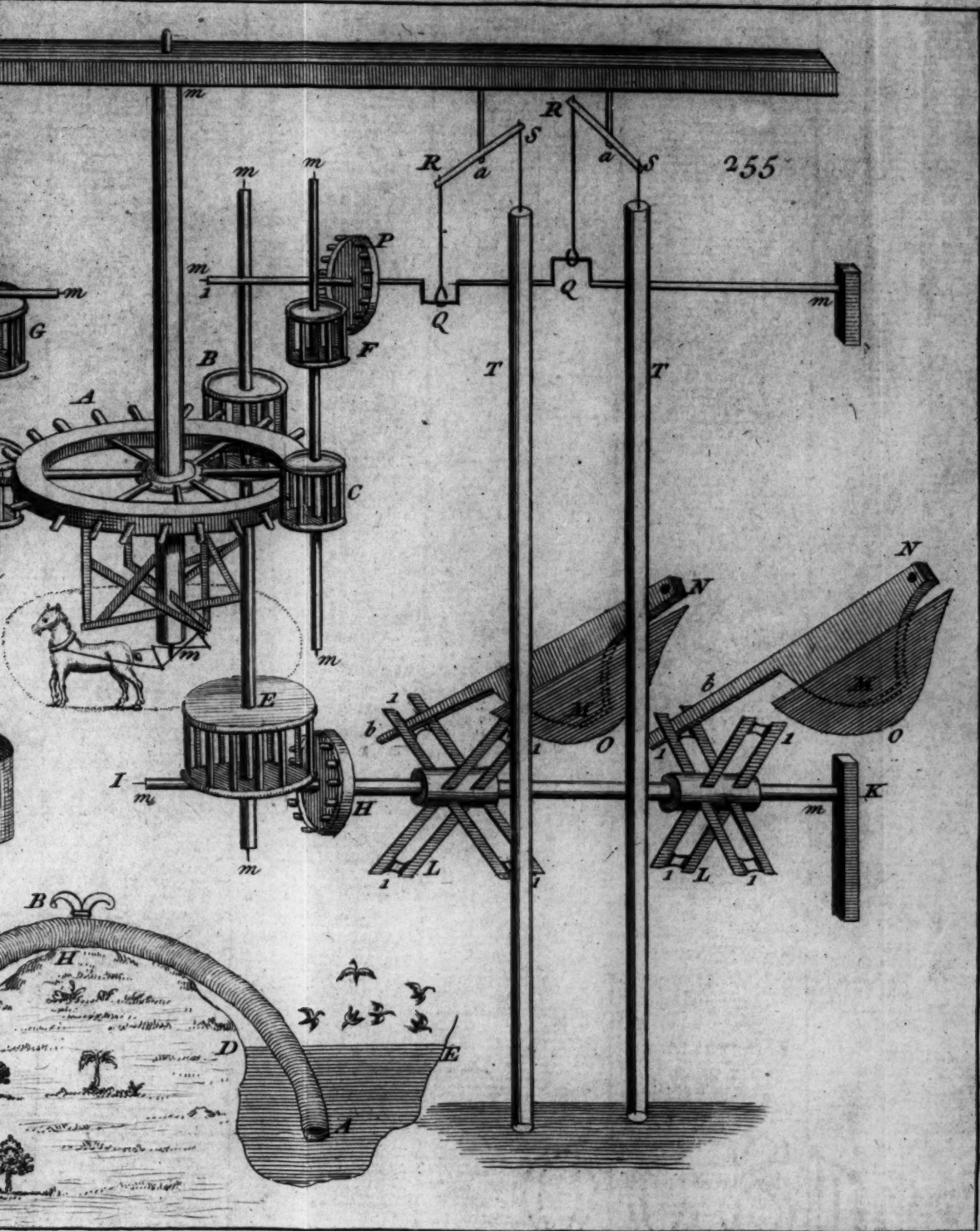


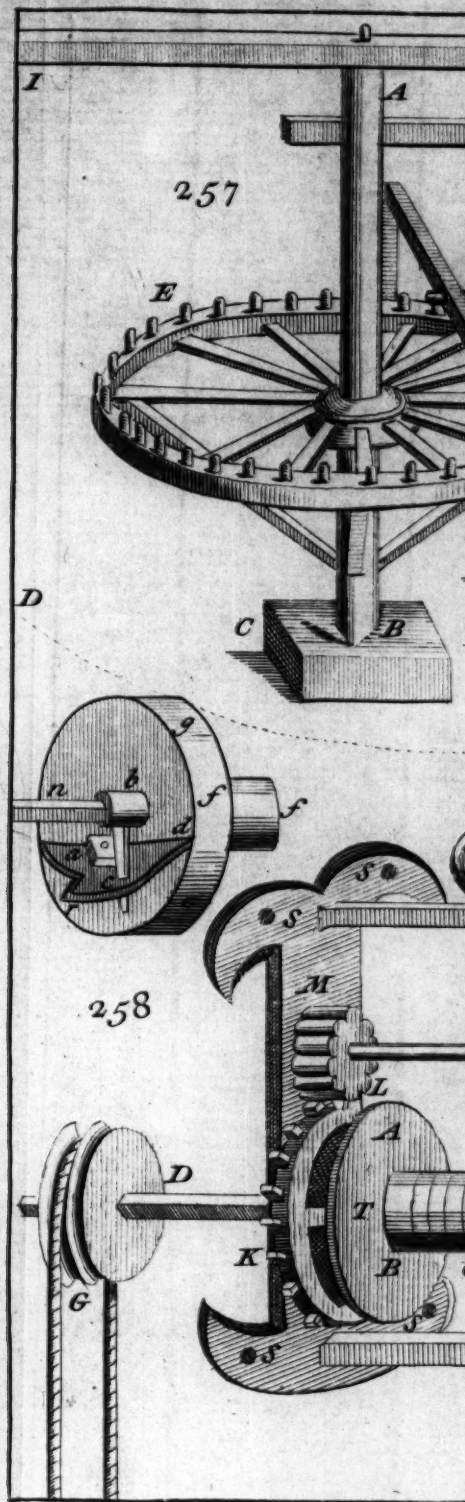
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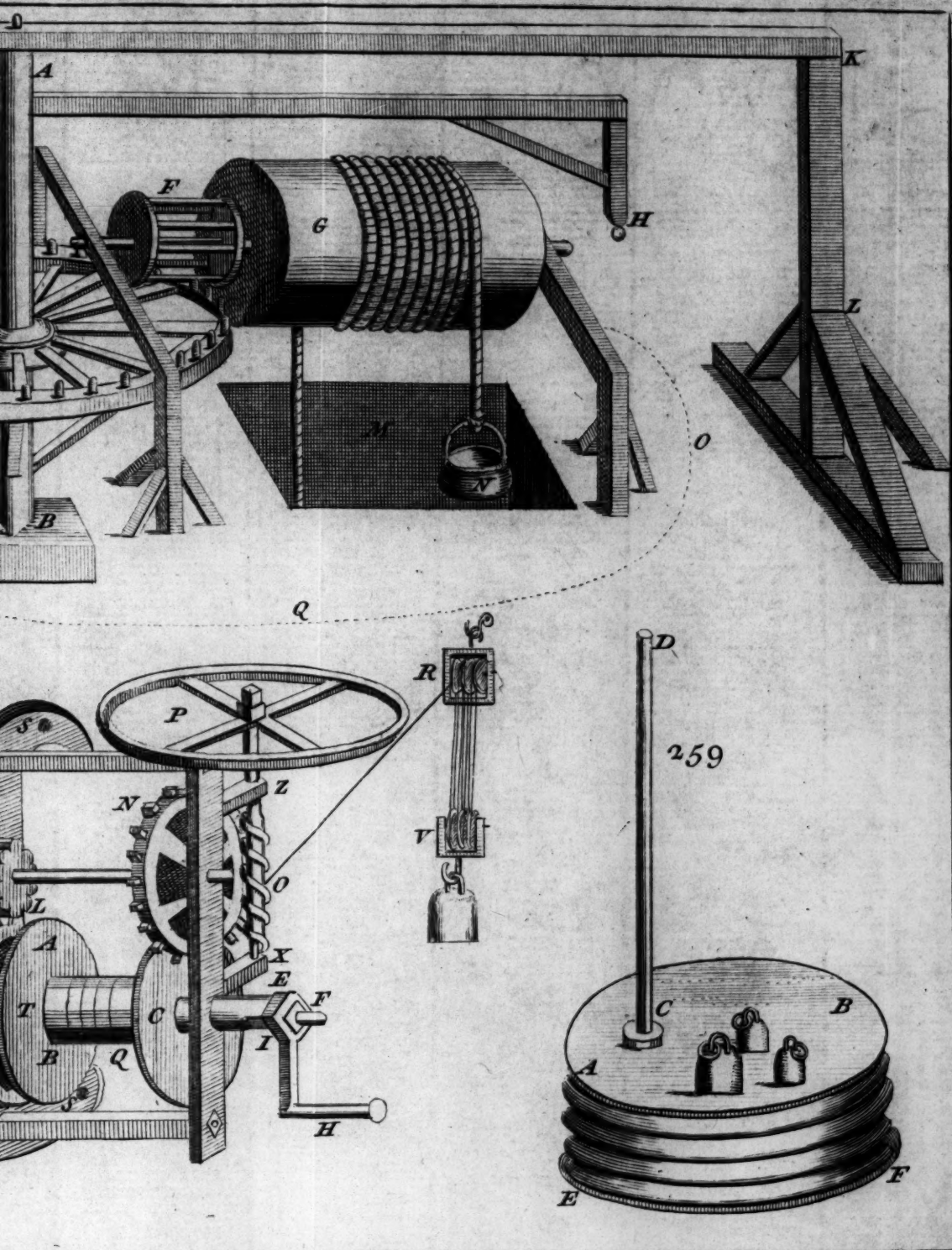


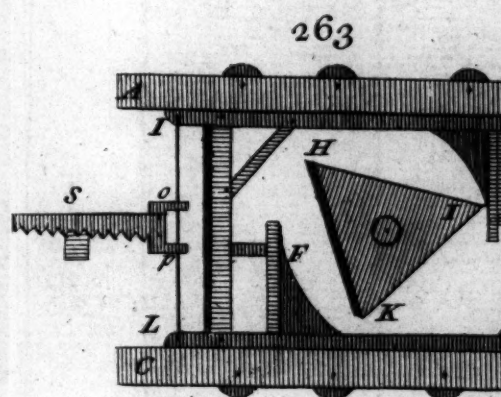
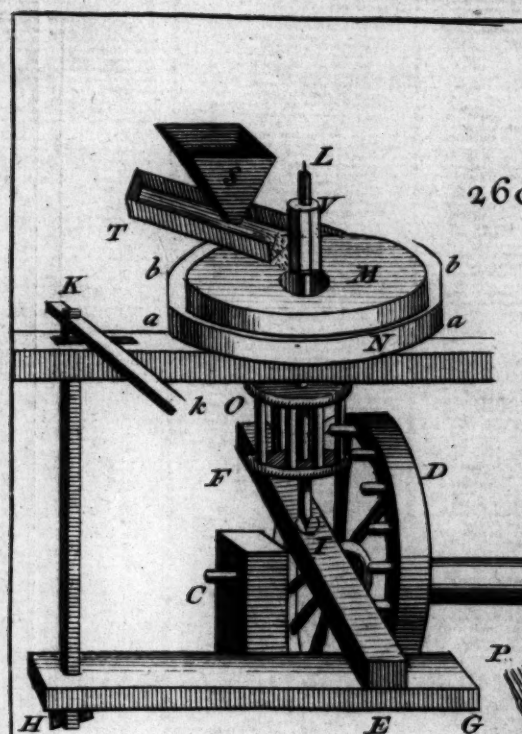
Pl. XX the End



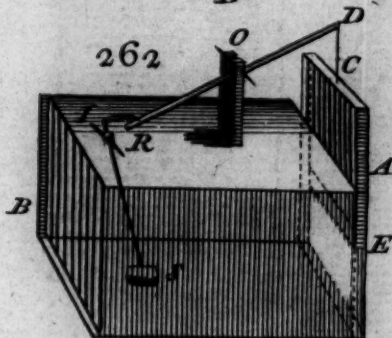
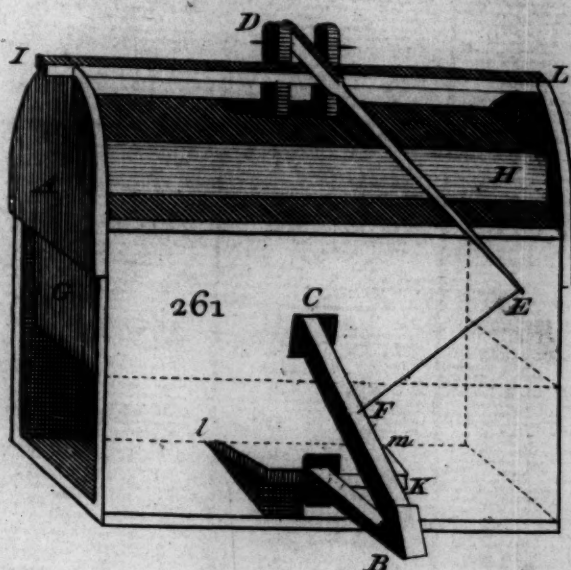
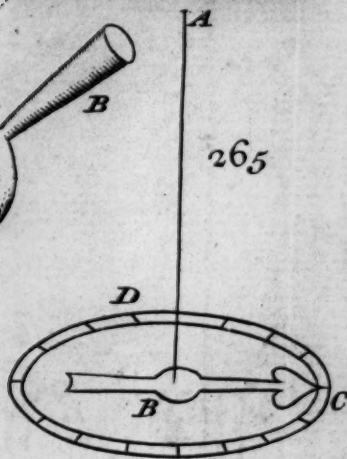
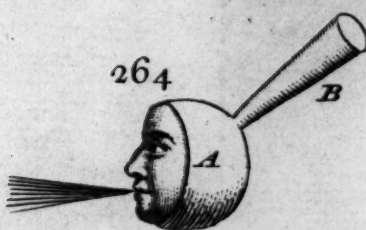
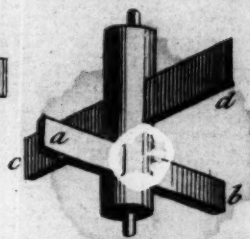
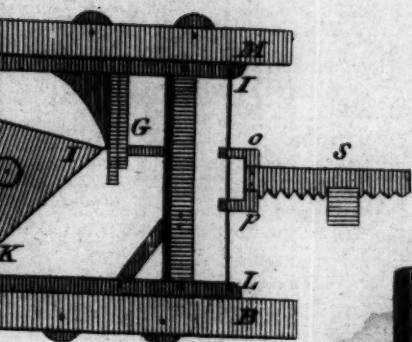
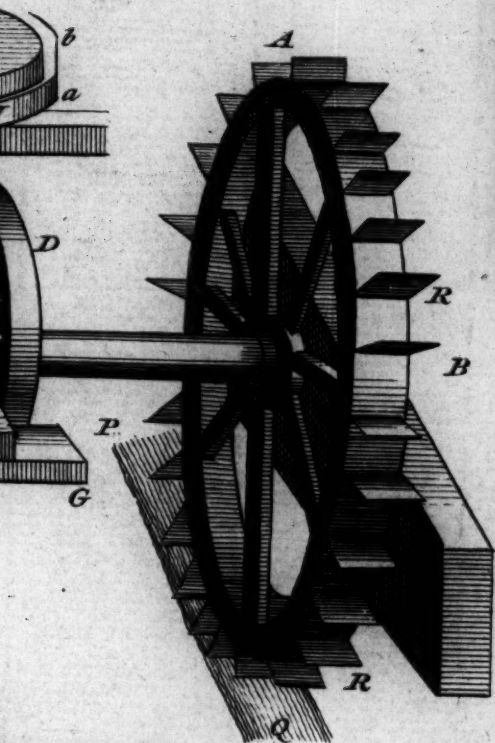


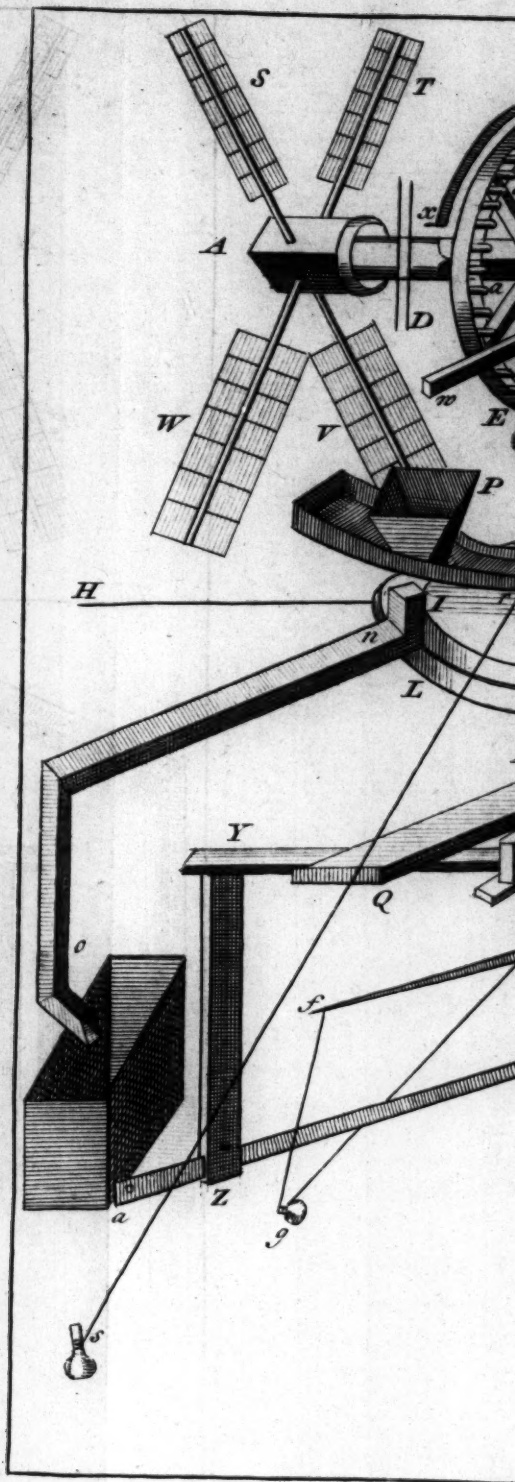


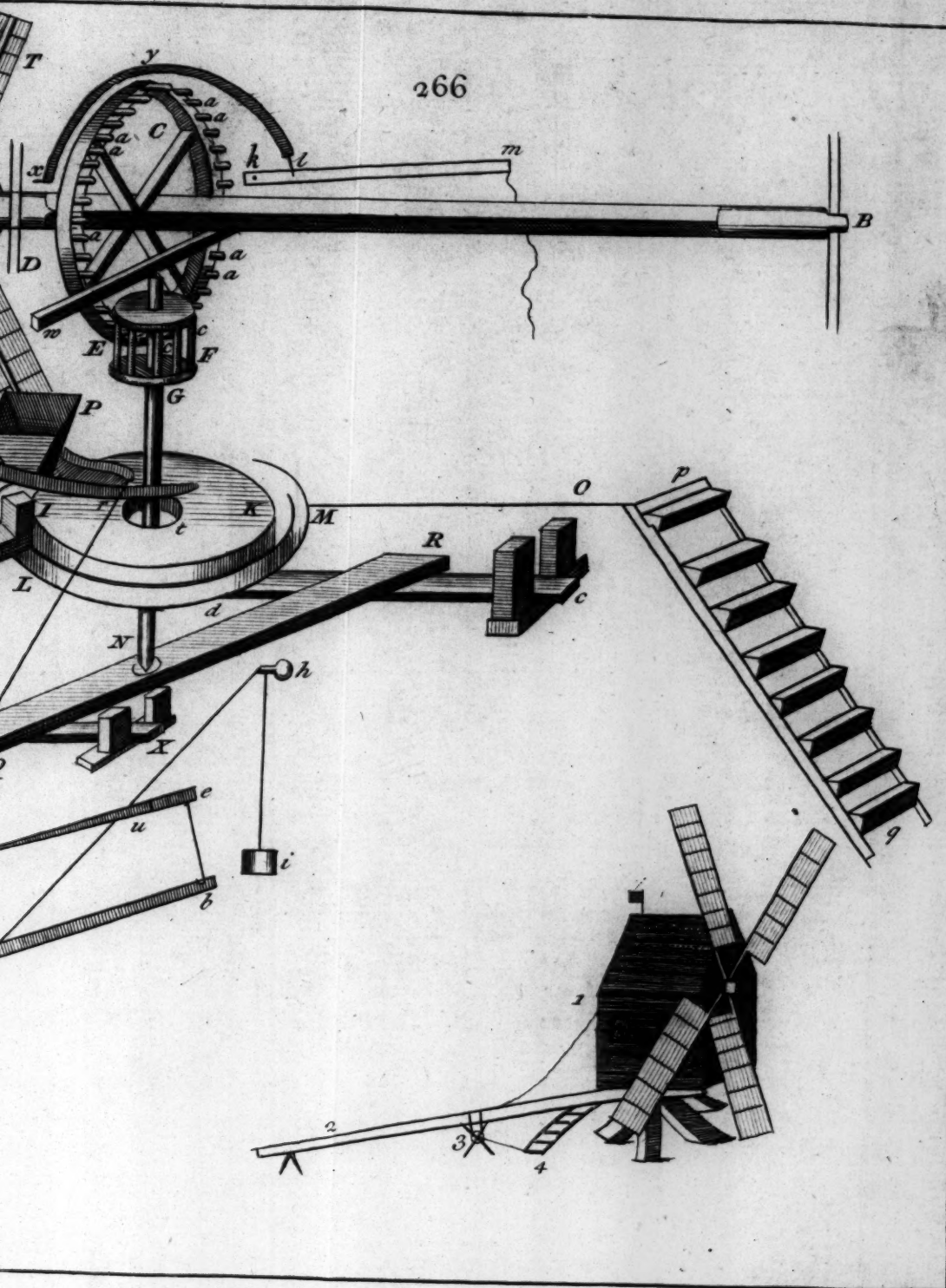


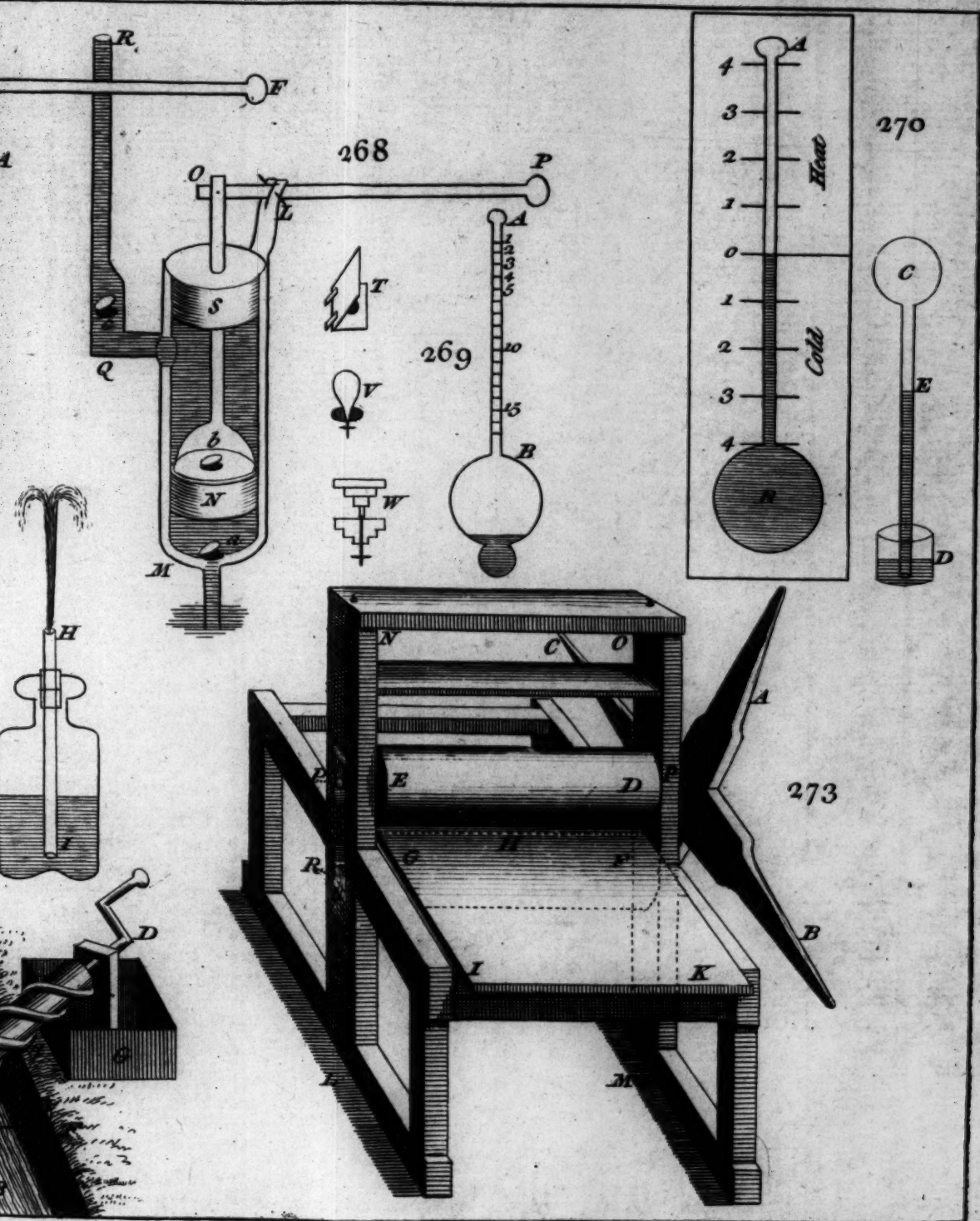


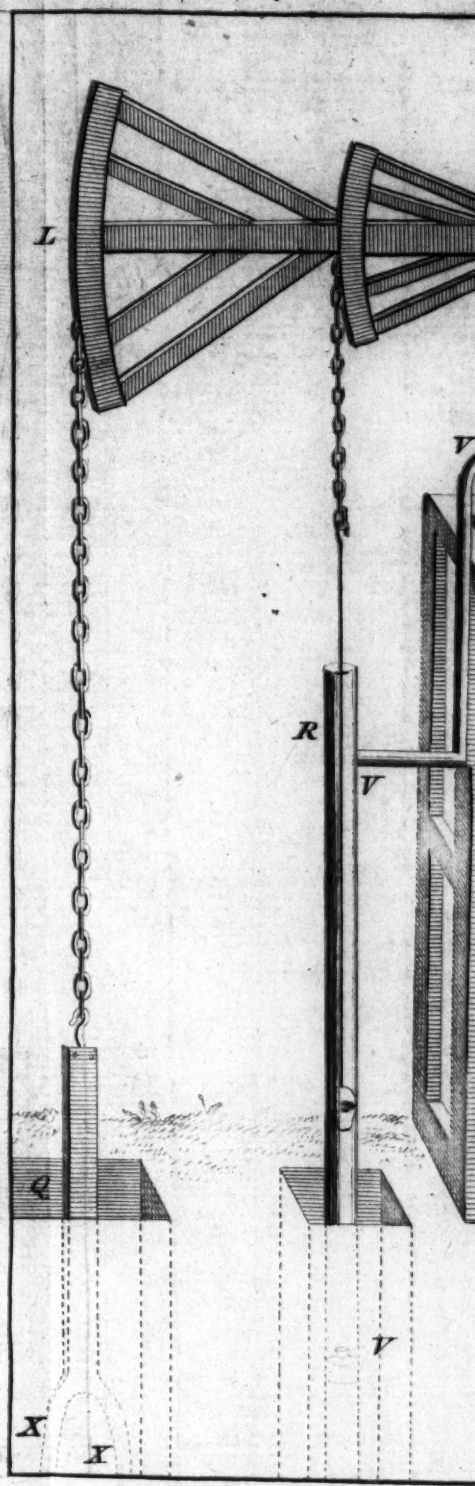
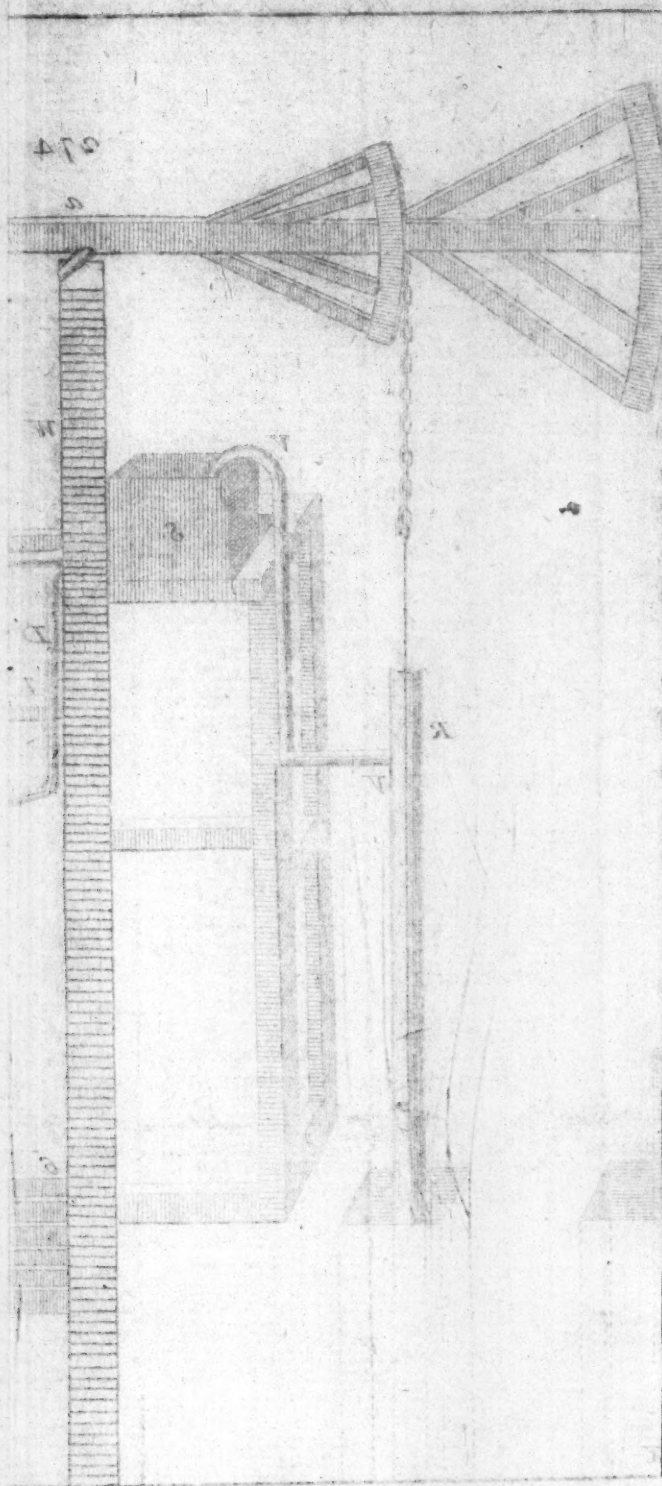
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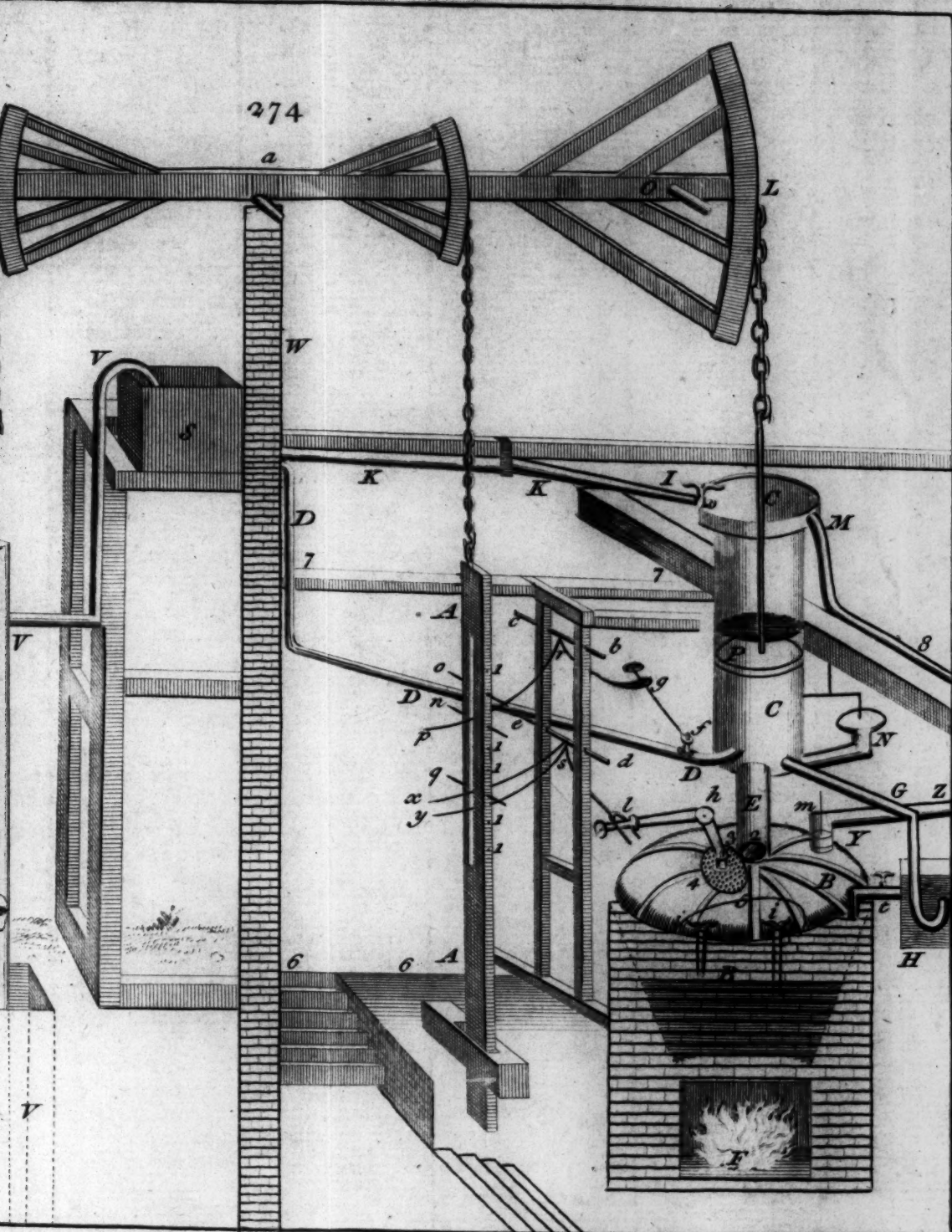




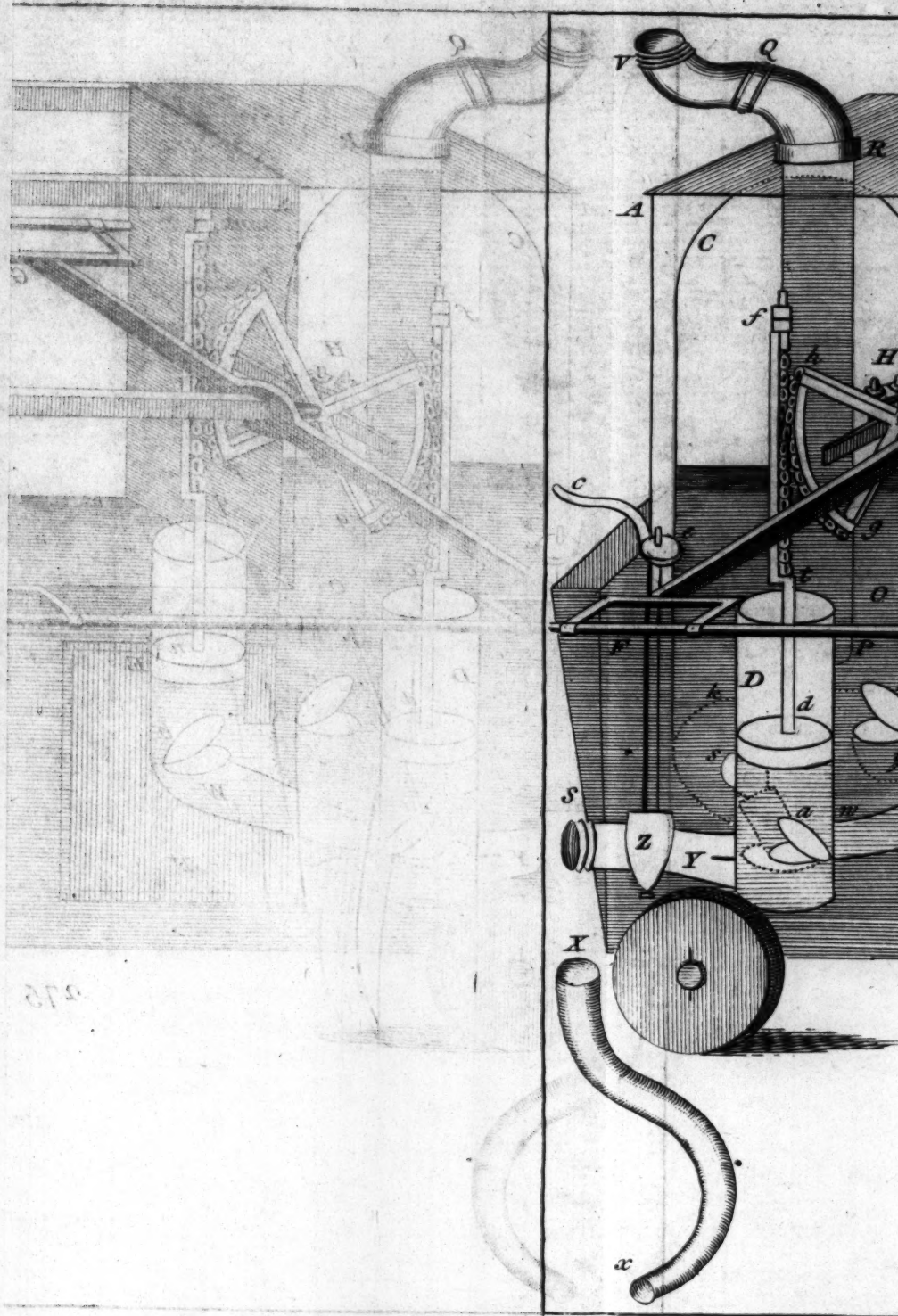


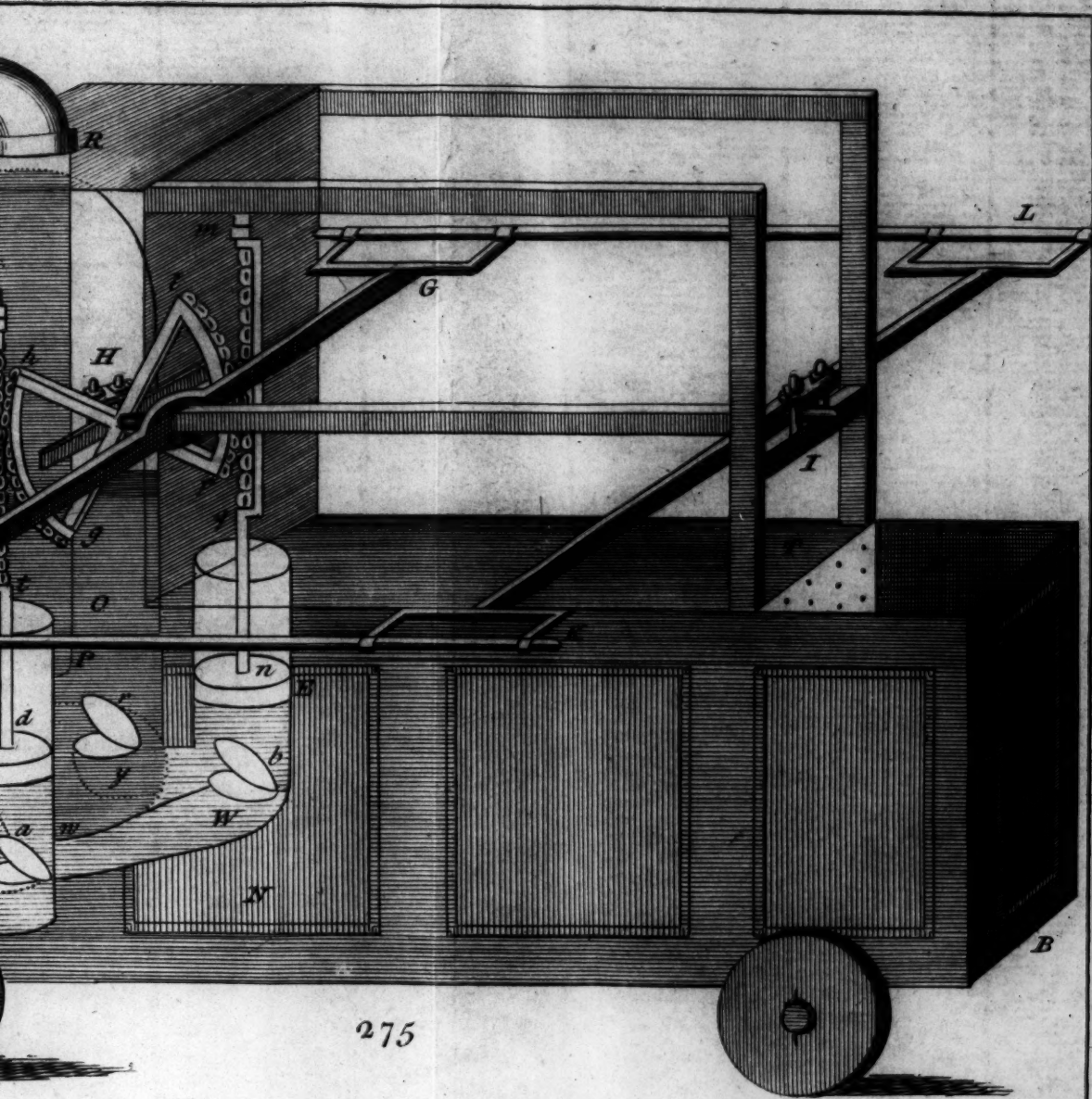




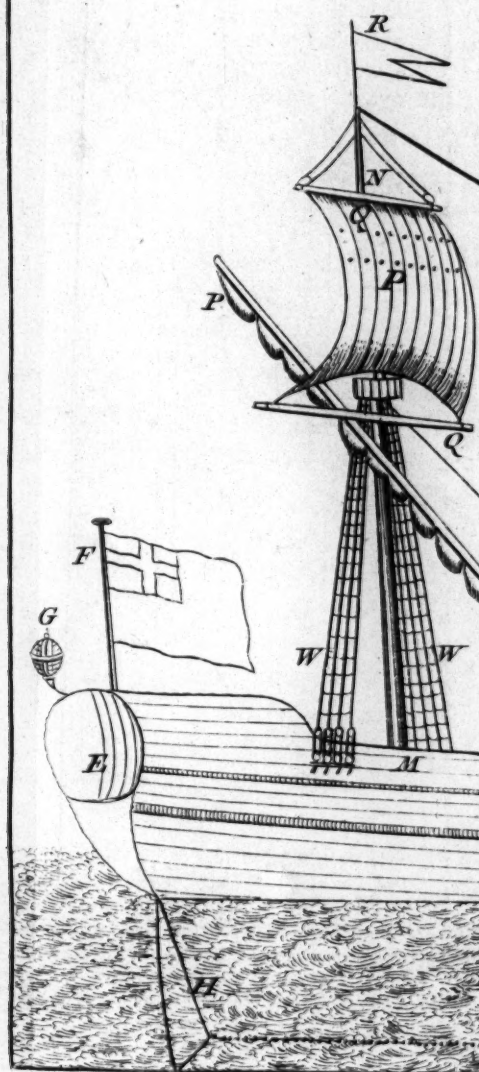


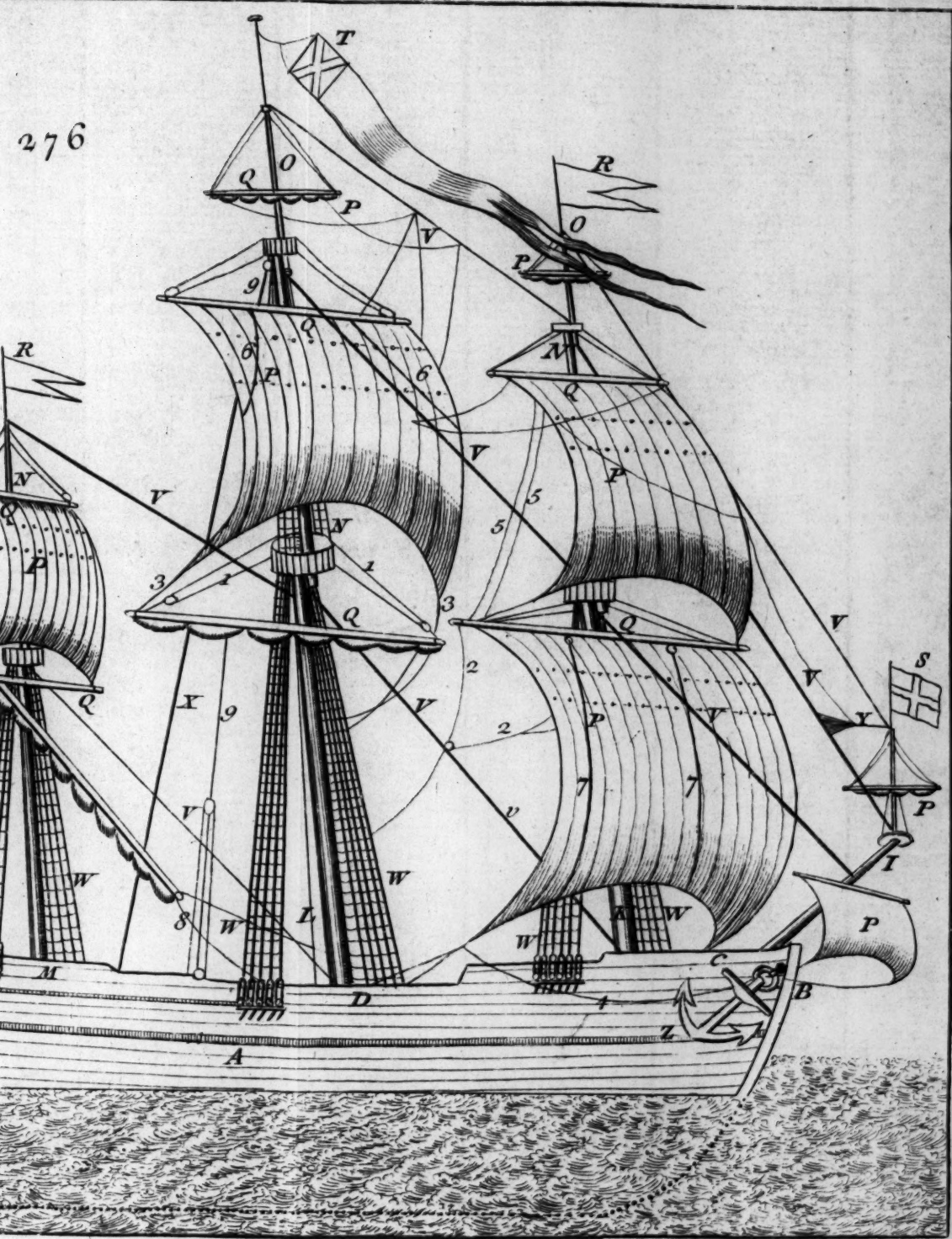
Pl. XXVI. the End

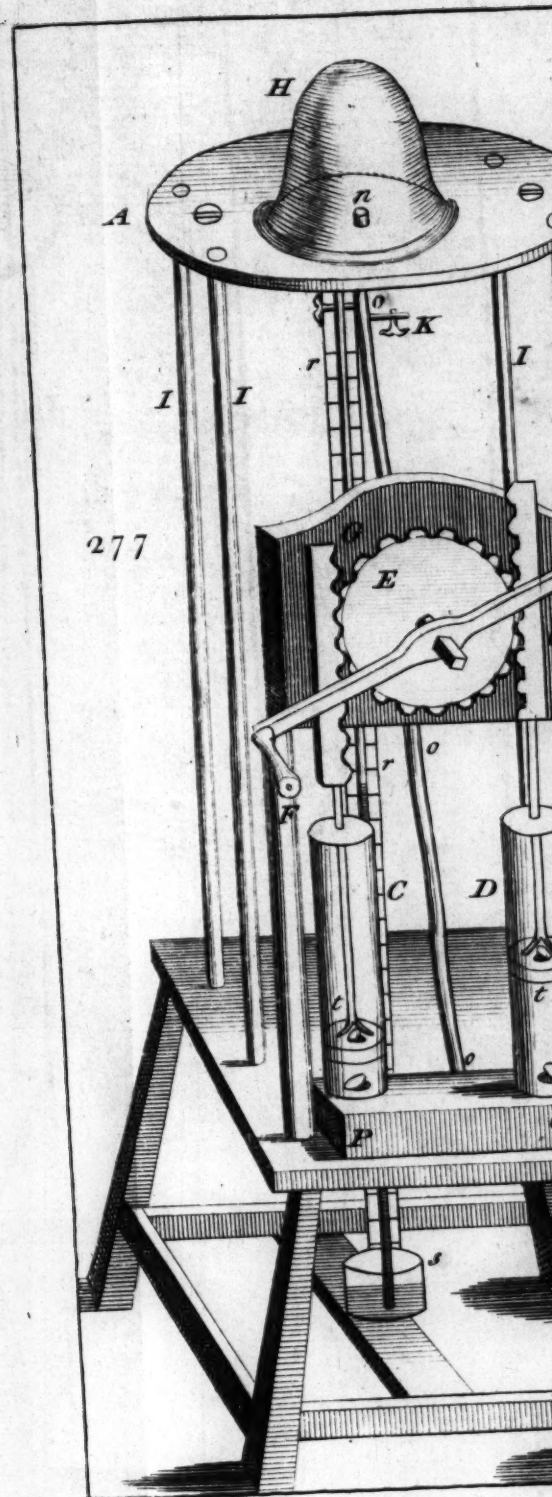


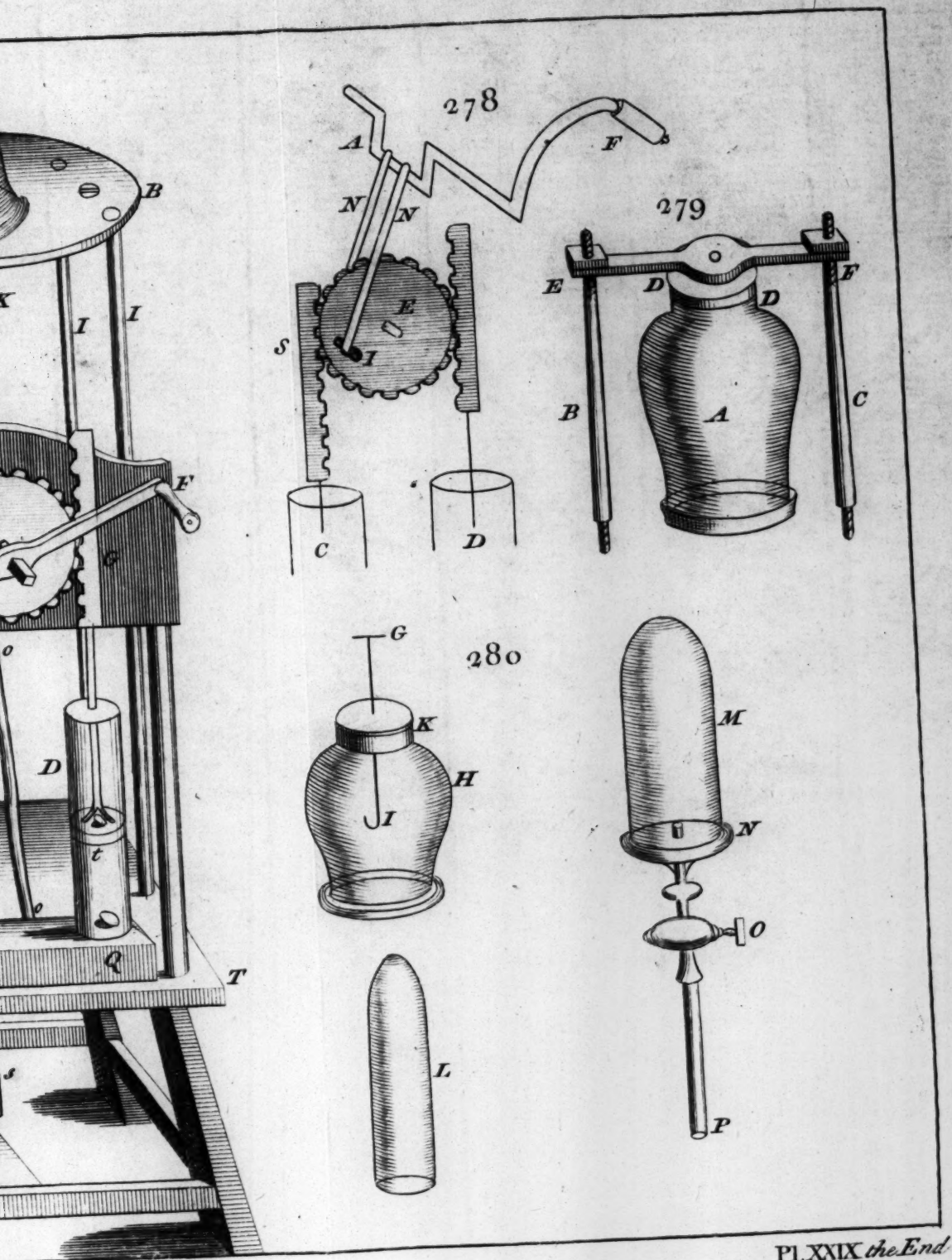


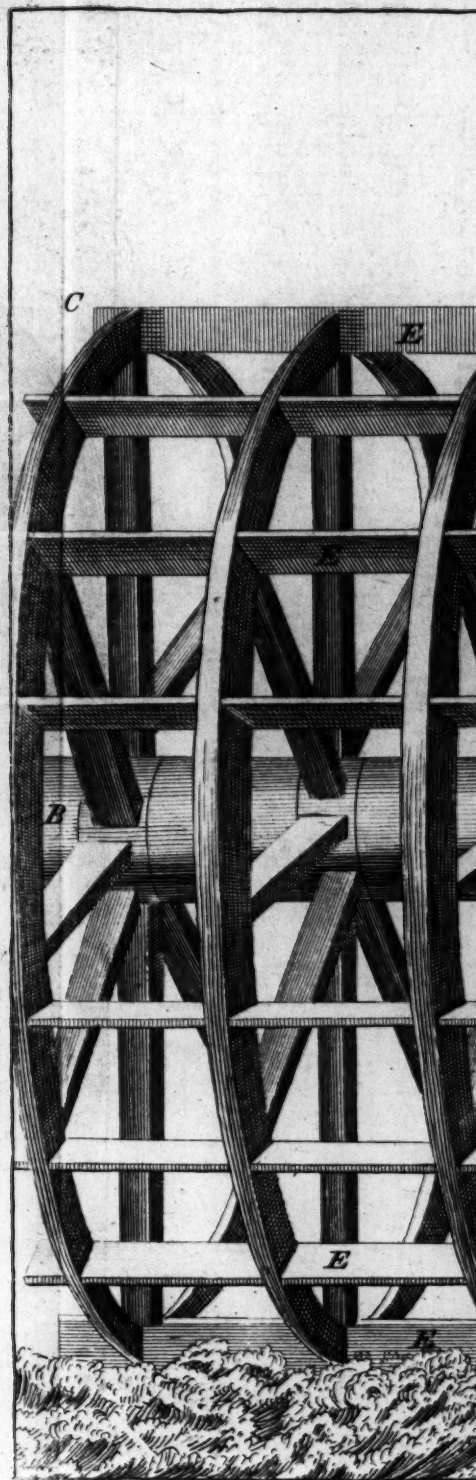
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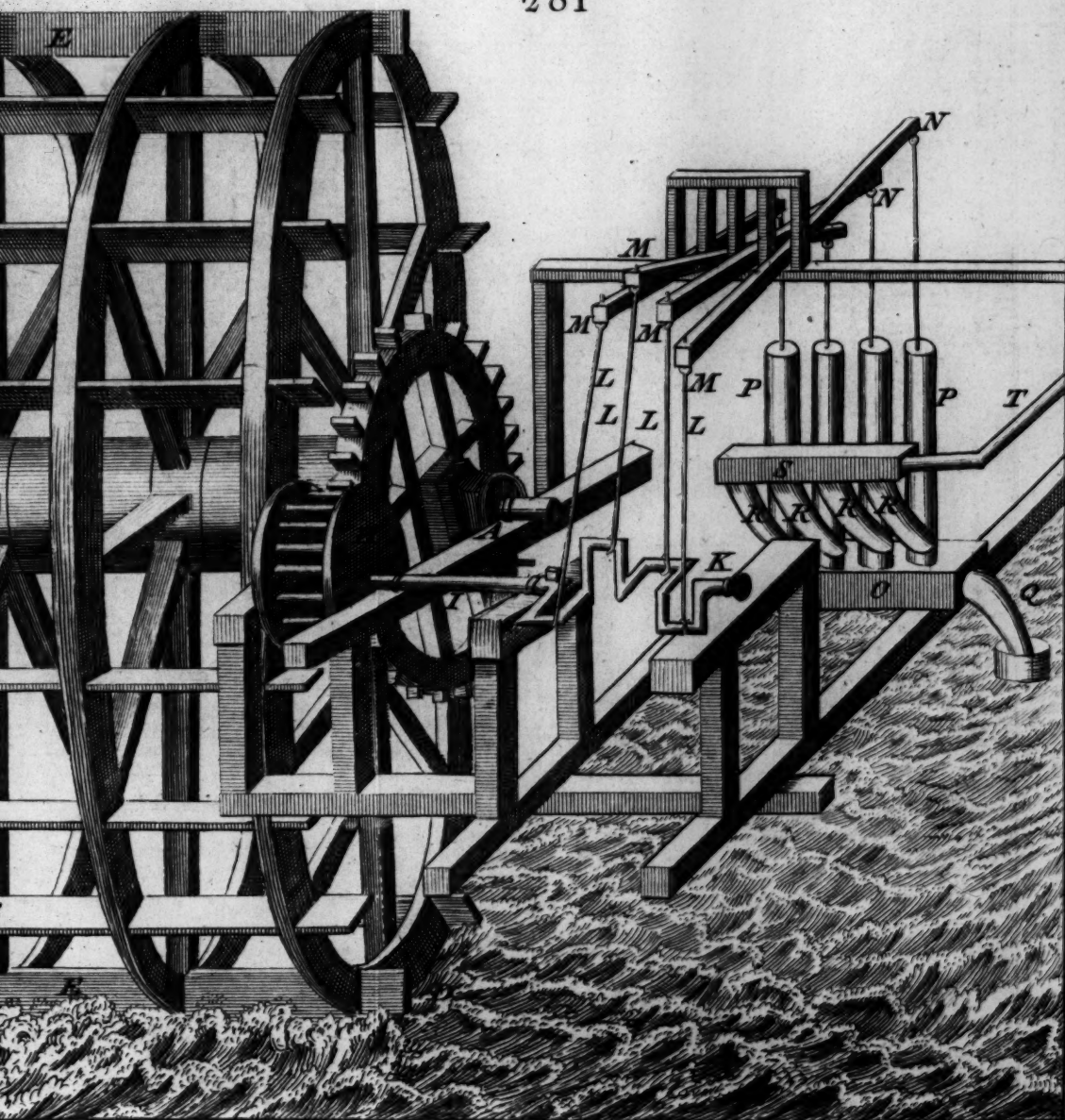


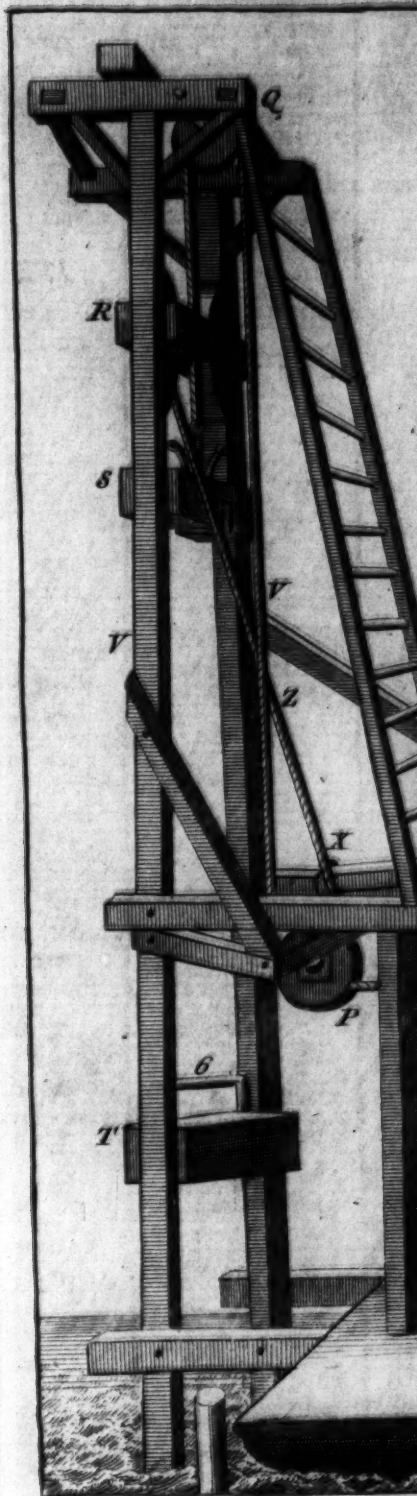


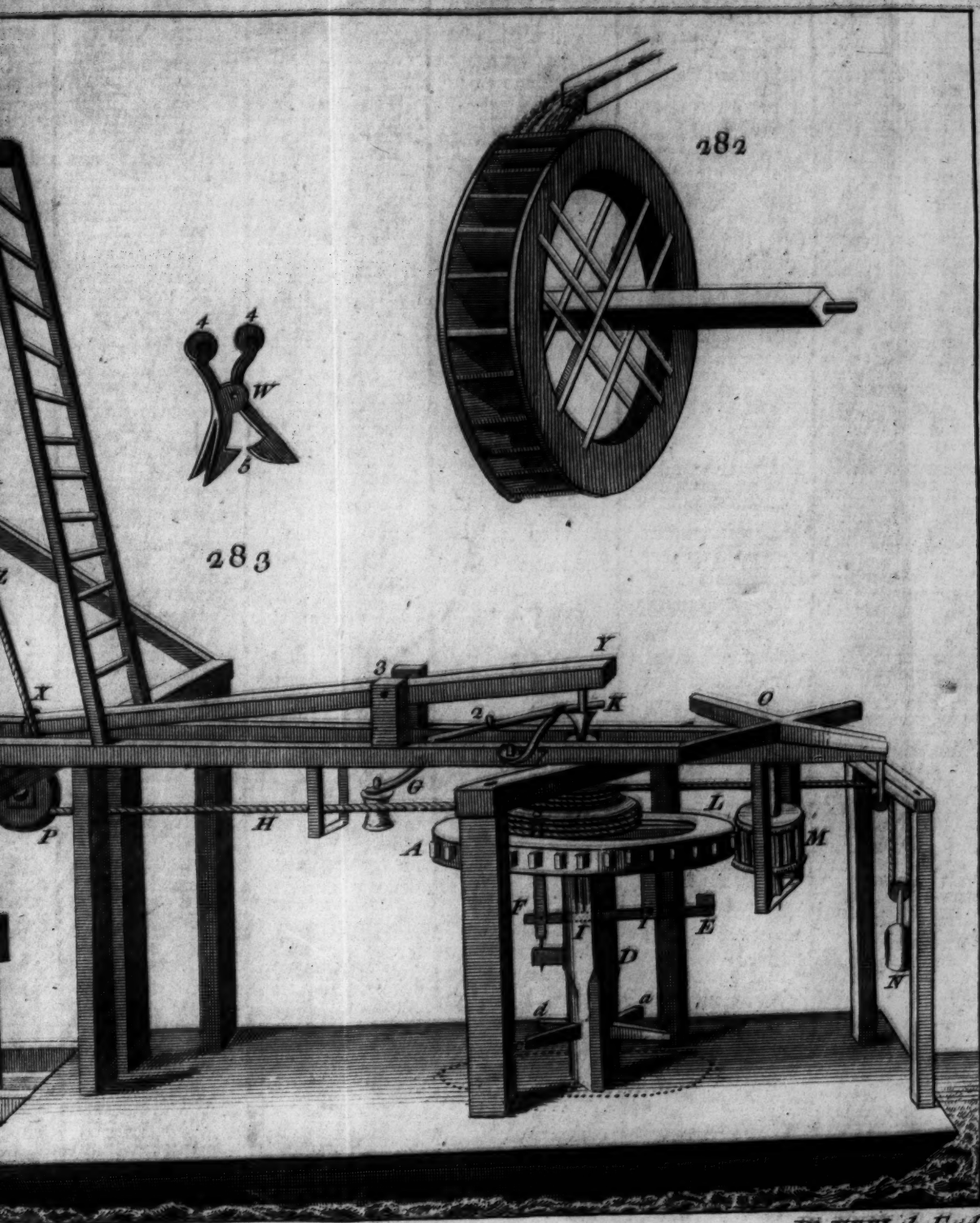


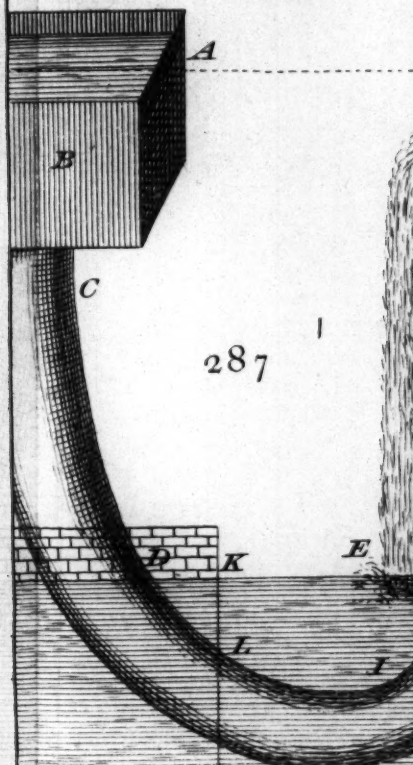
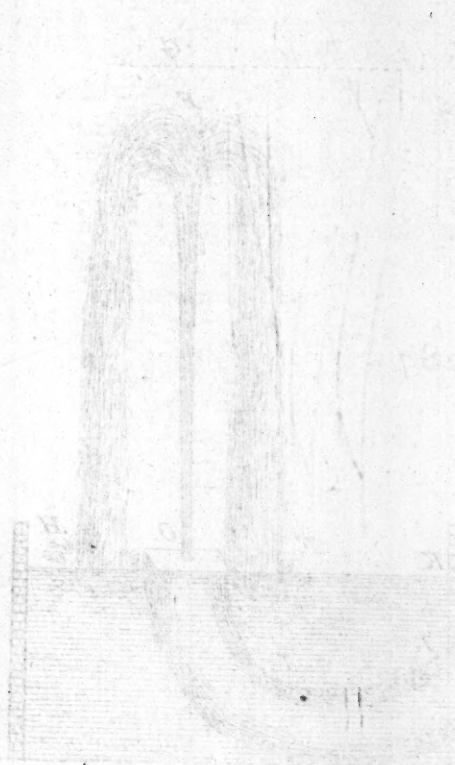
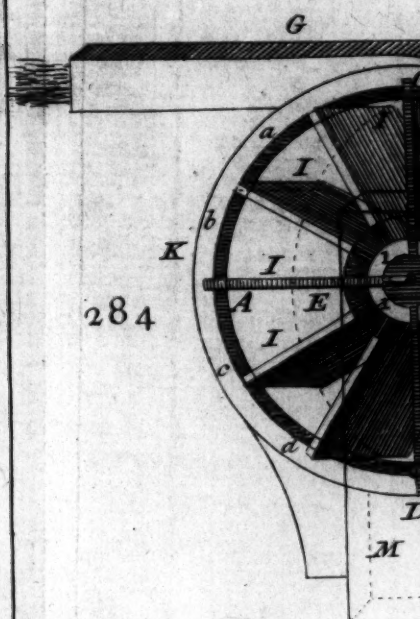
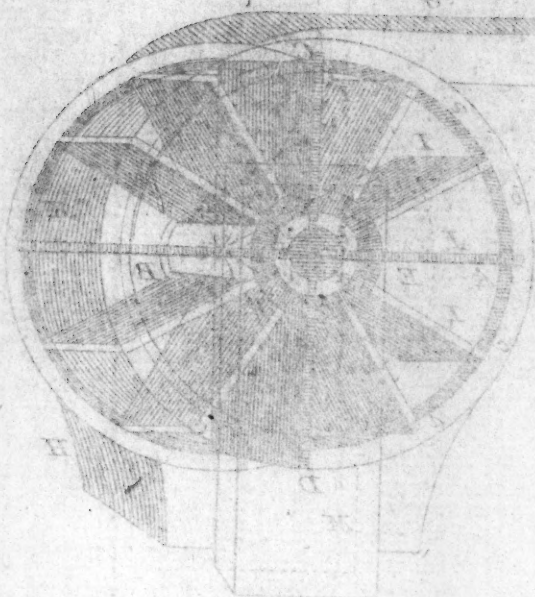


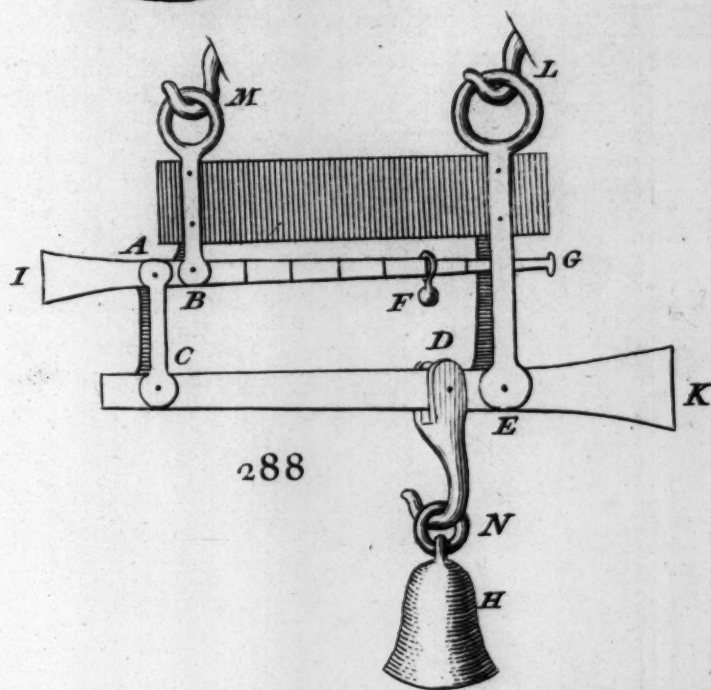
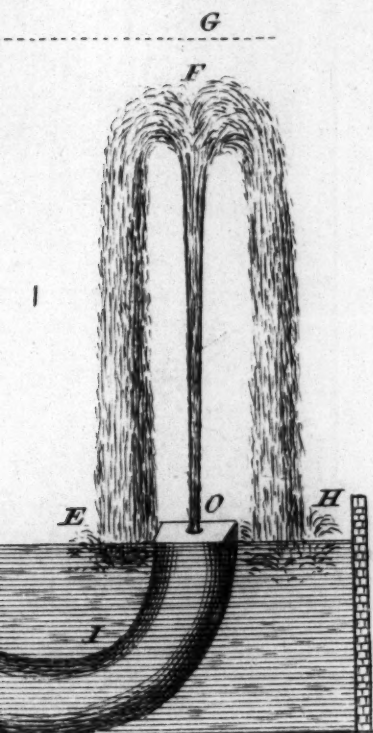
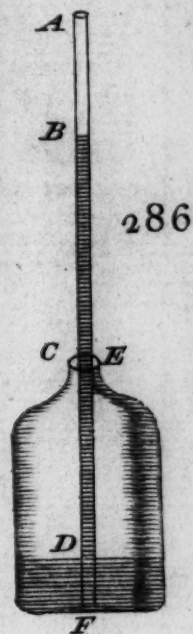
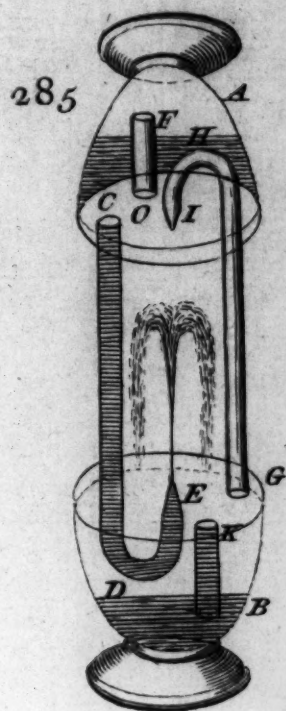
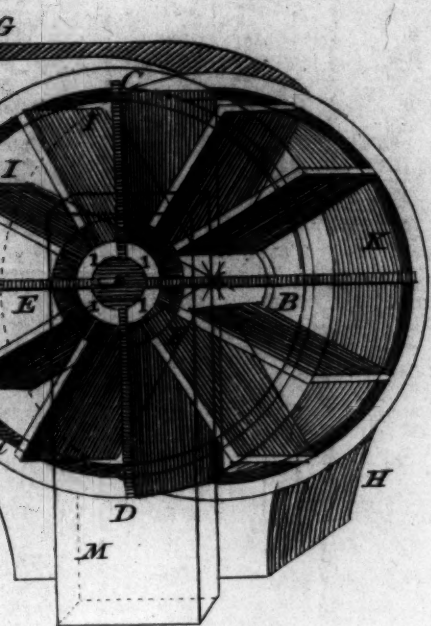


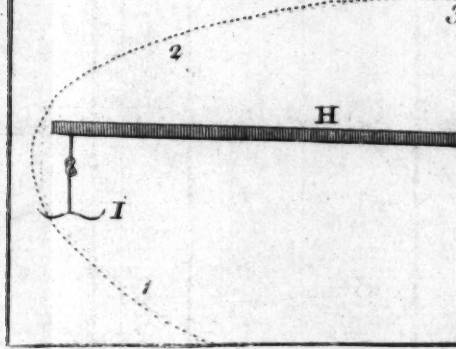
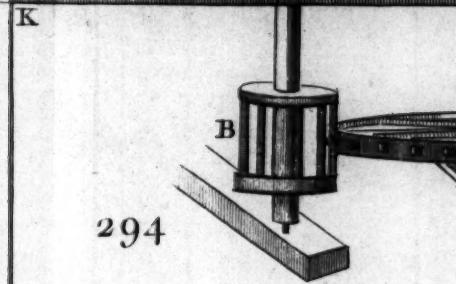
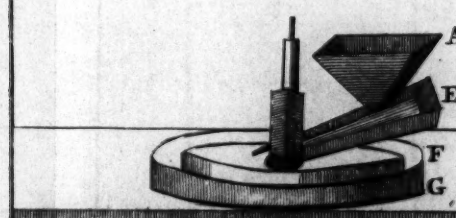
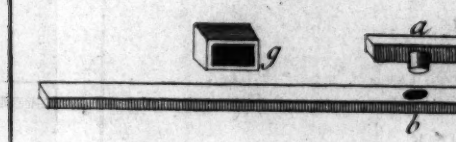
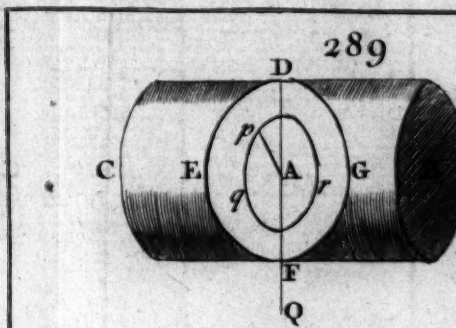
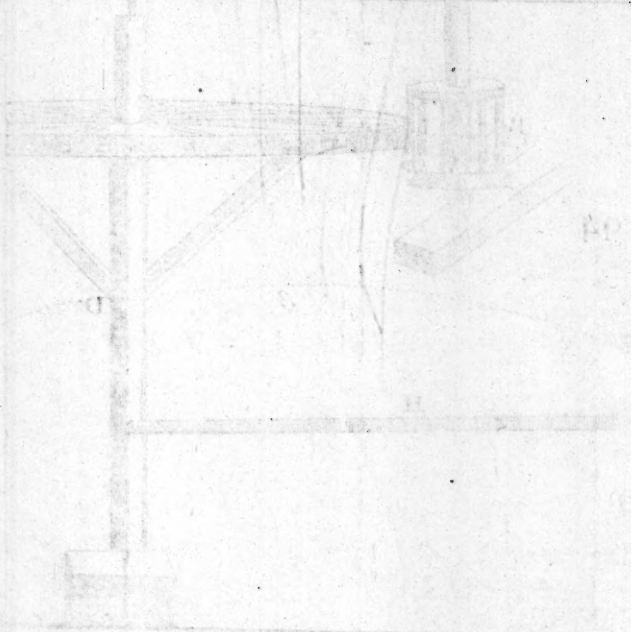
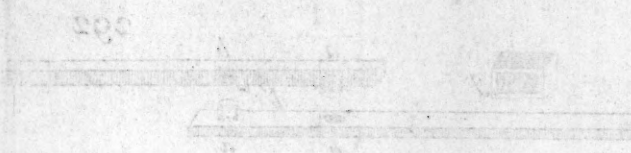




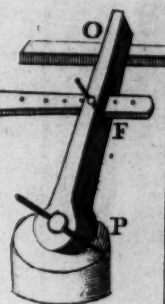
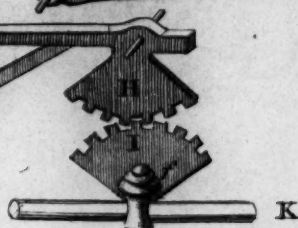
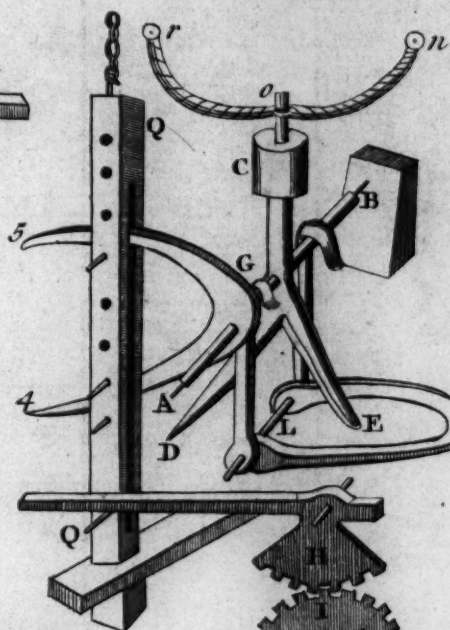
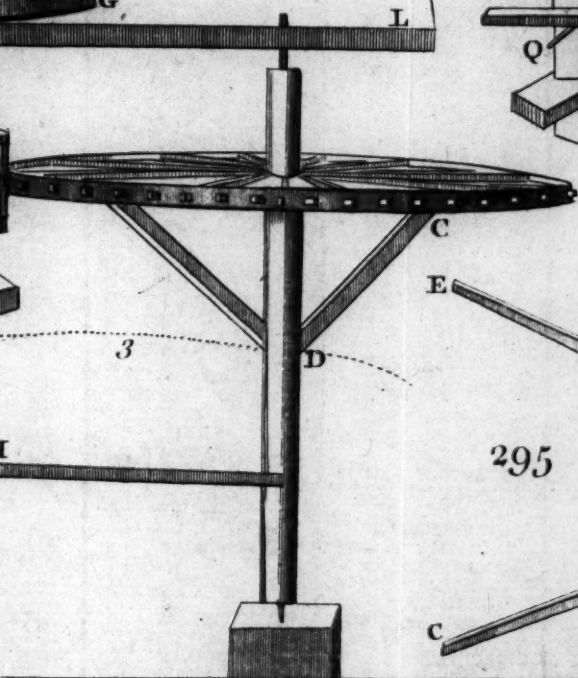
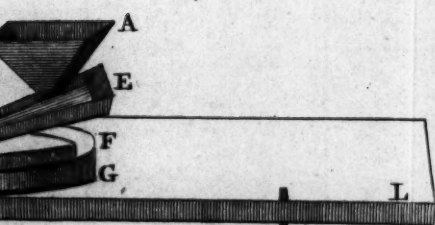
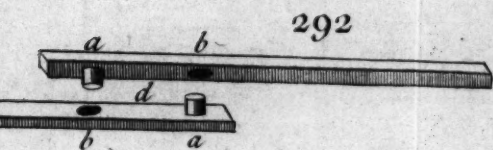
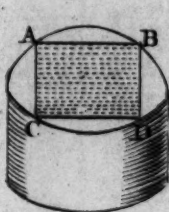
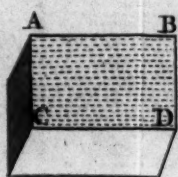




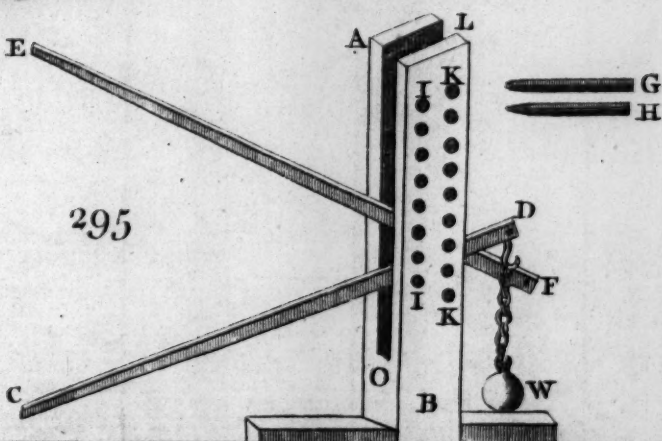




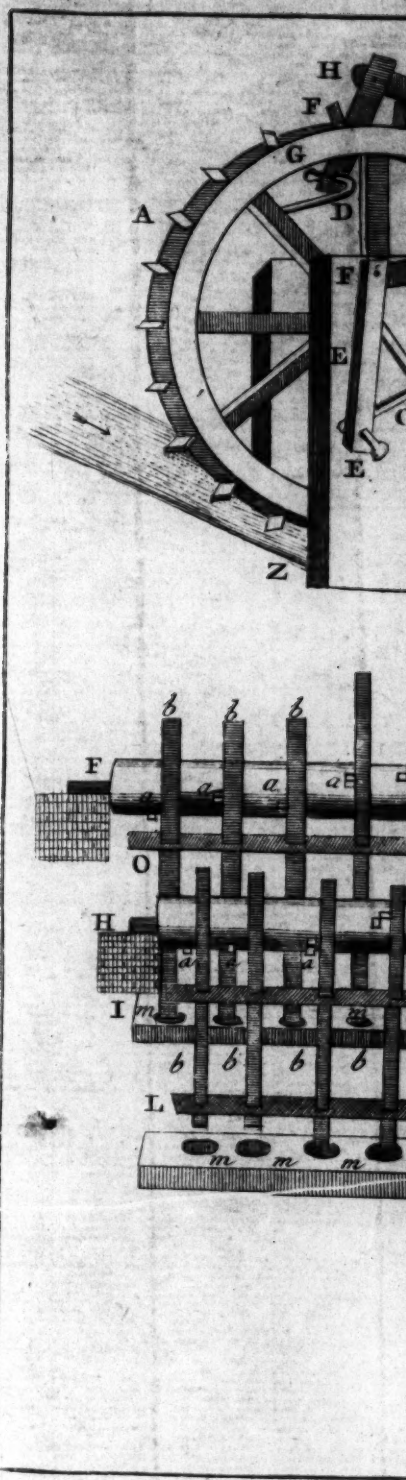
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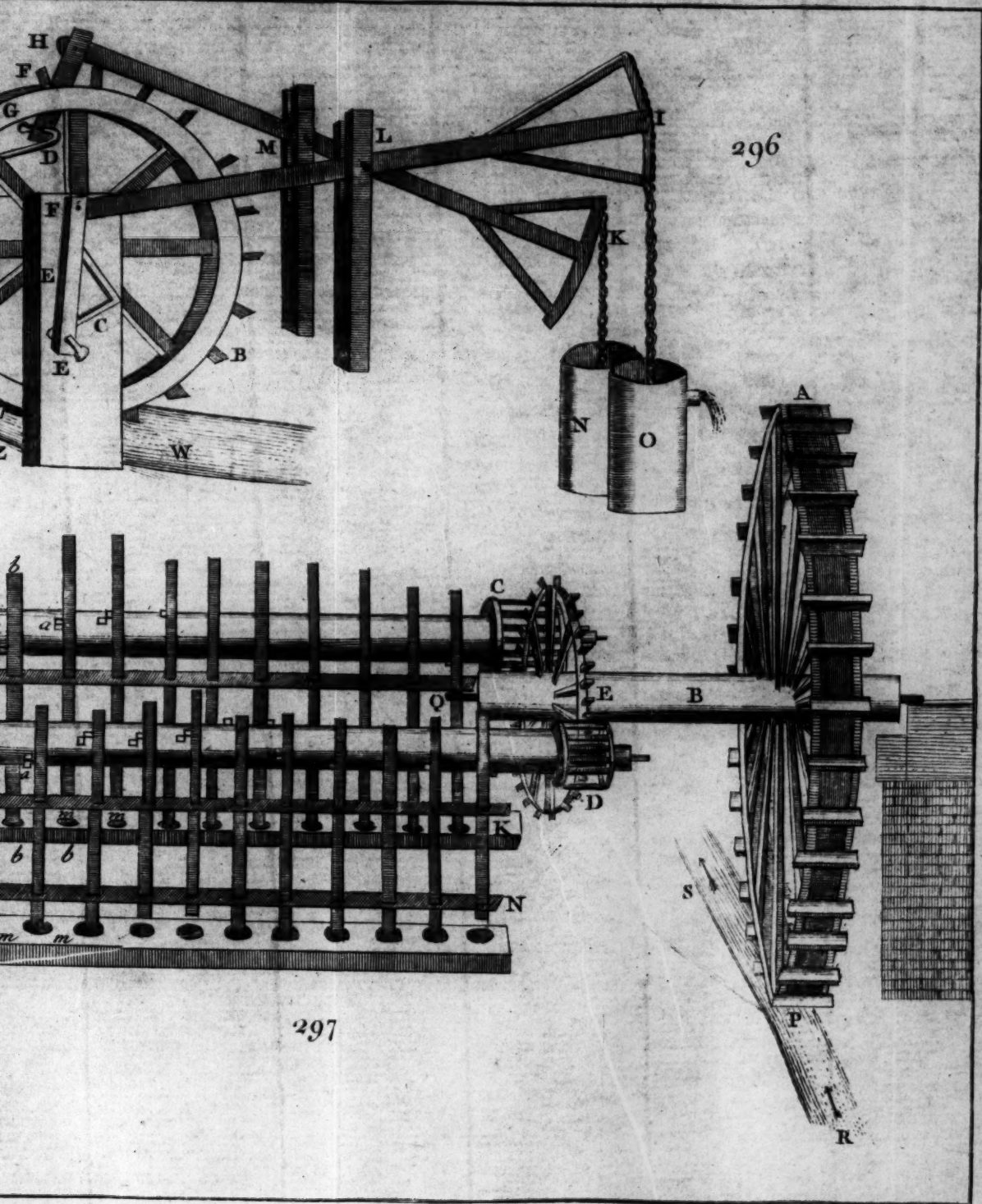


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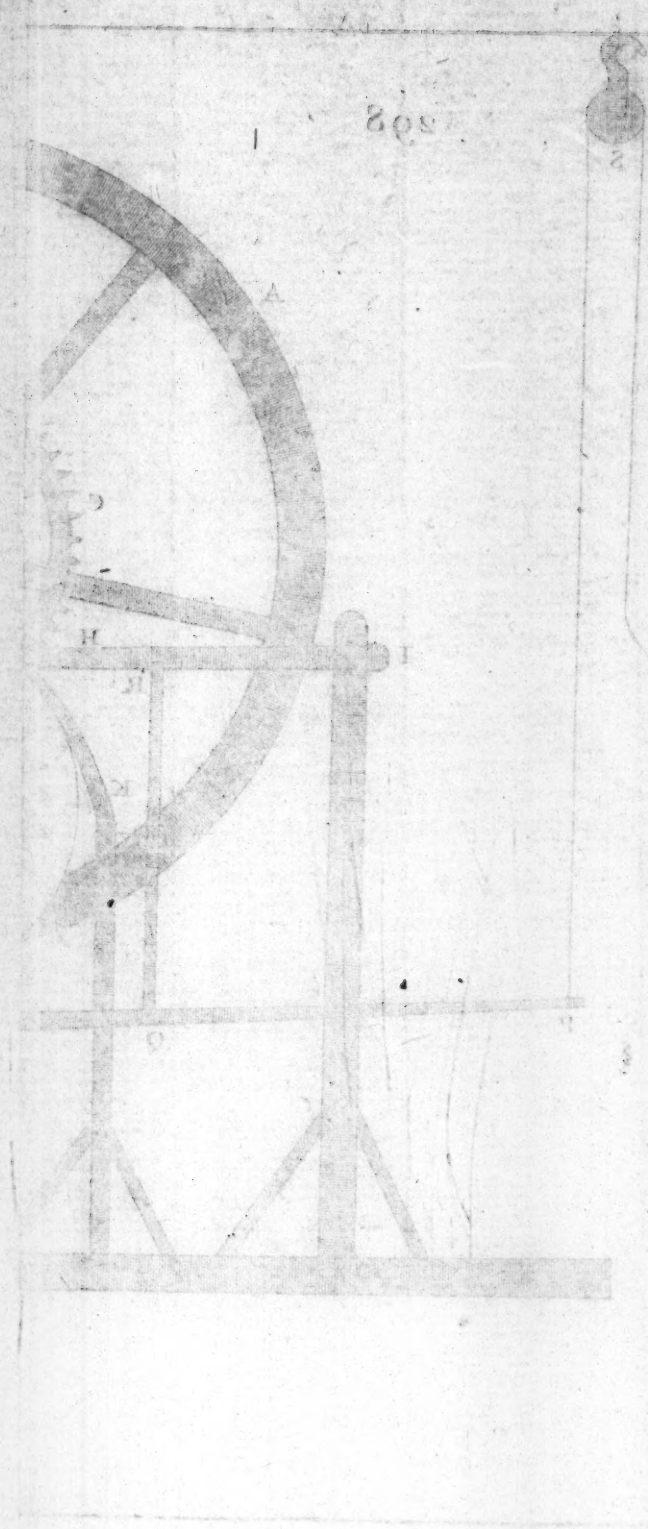


Pl. XXXIII. the End.

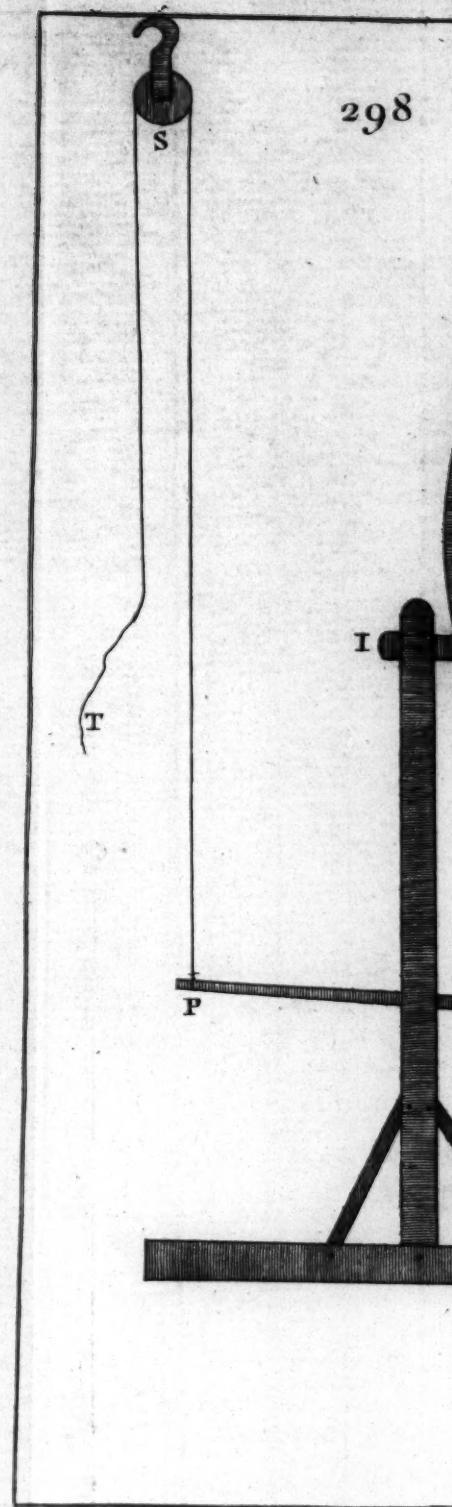




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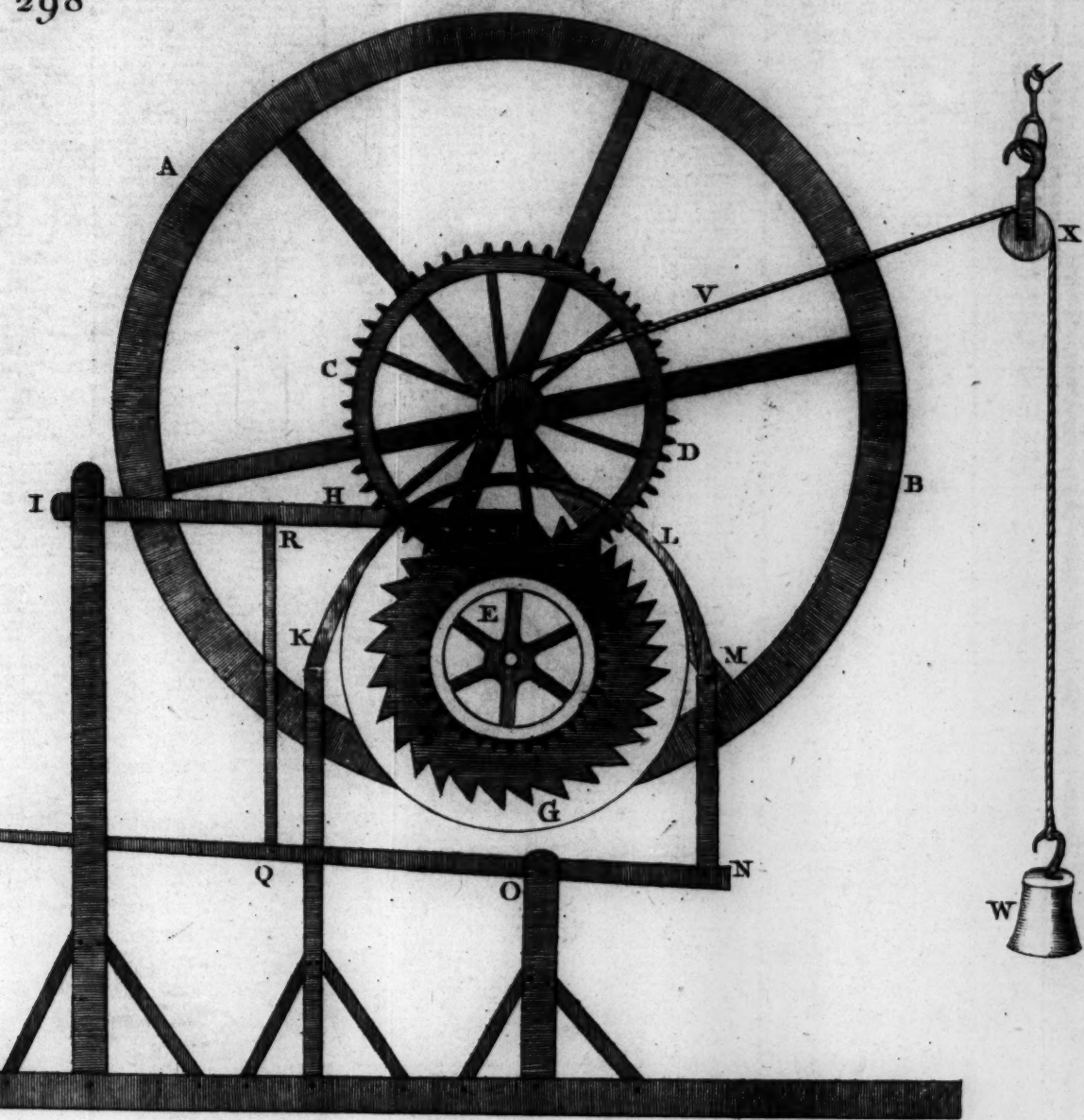
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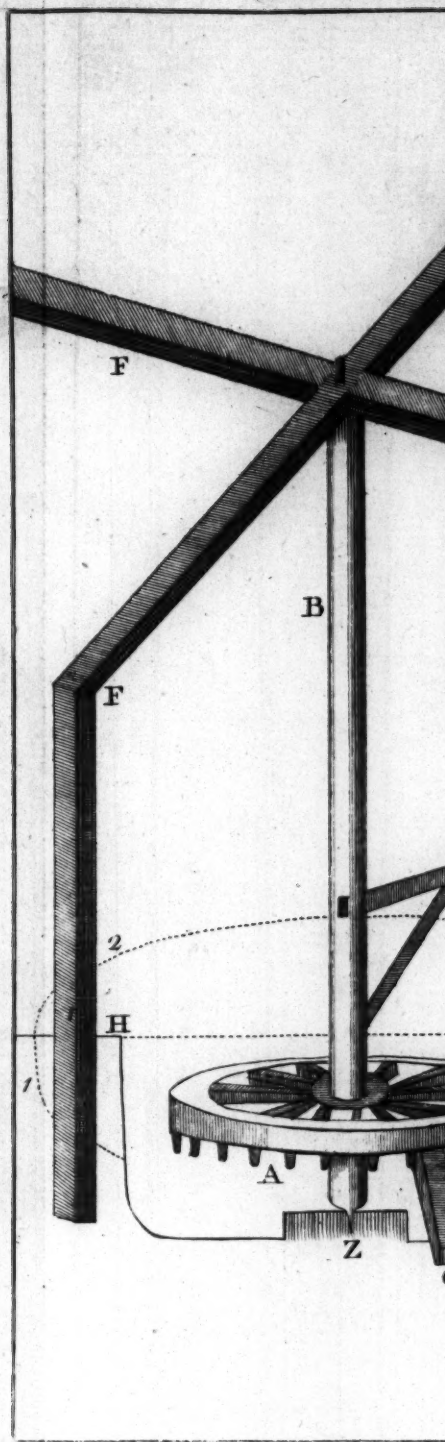


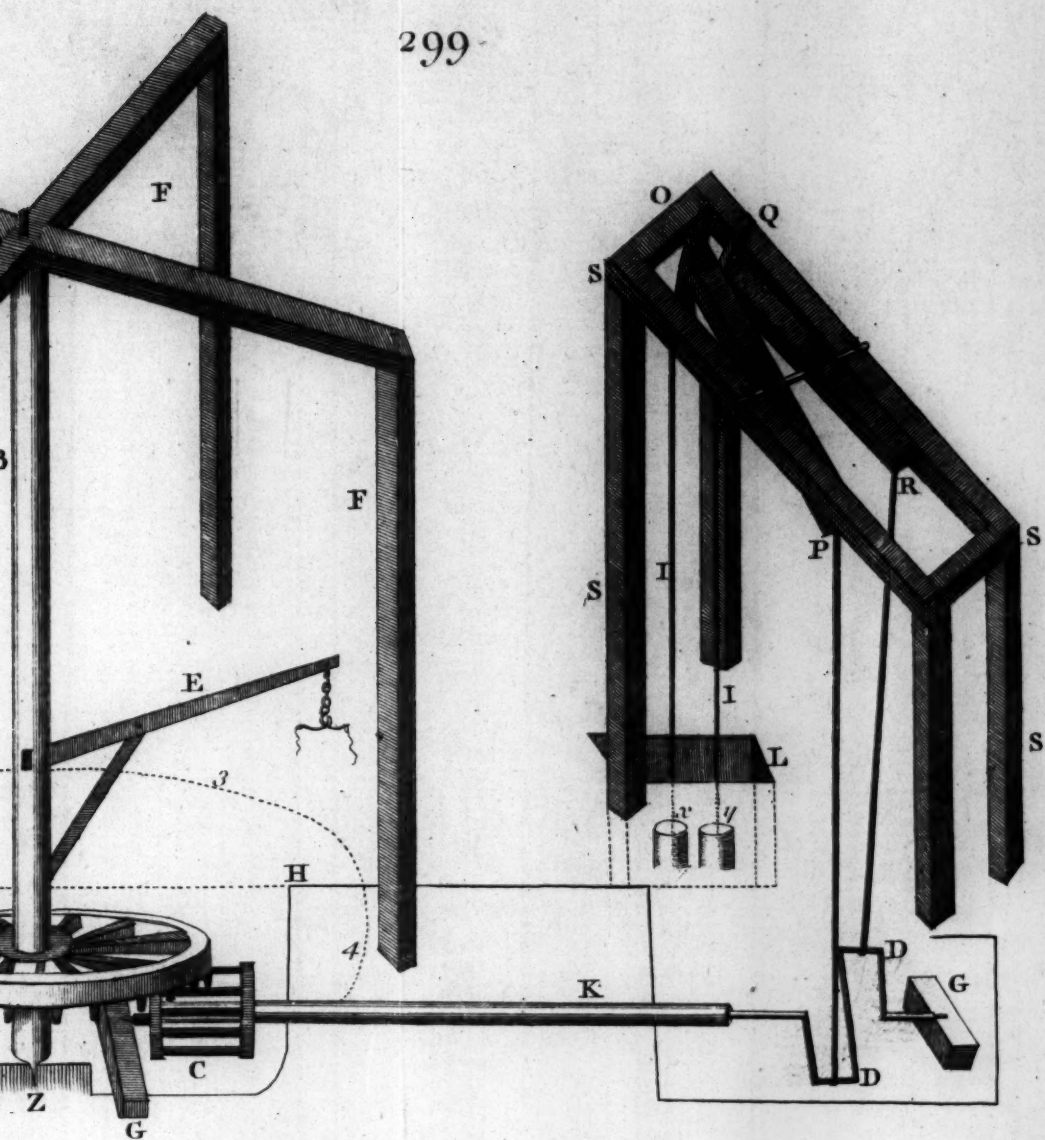
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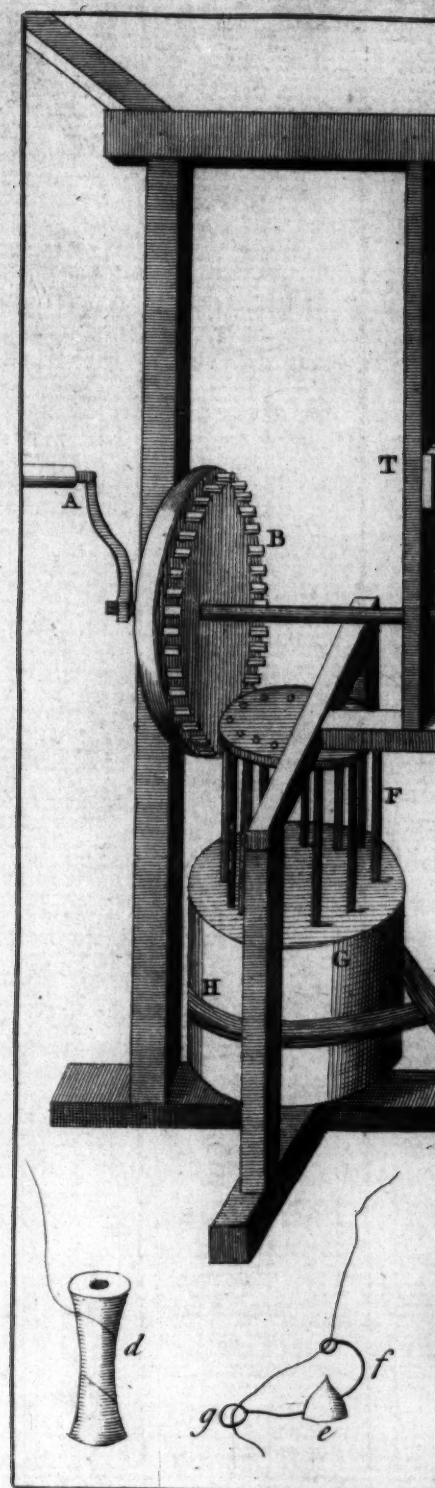


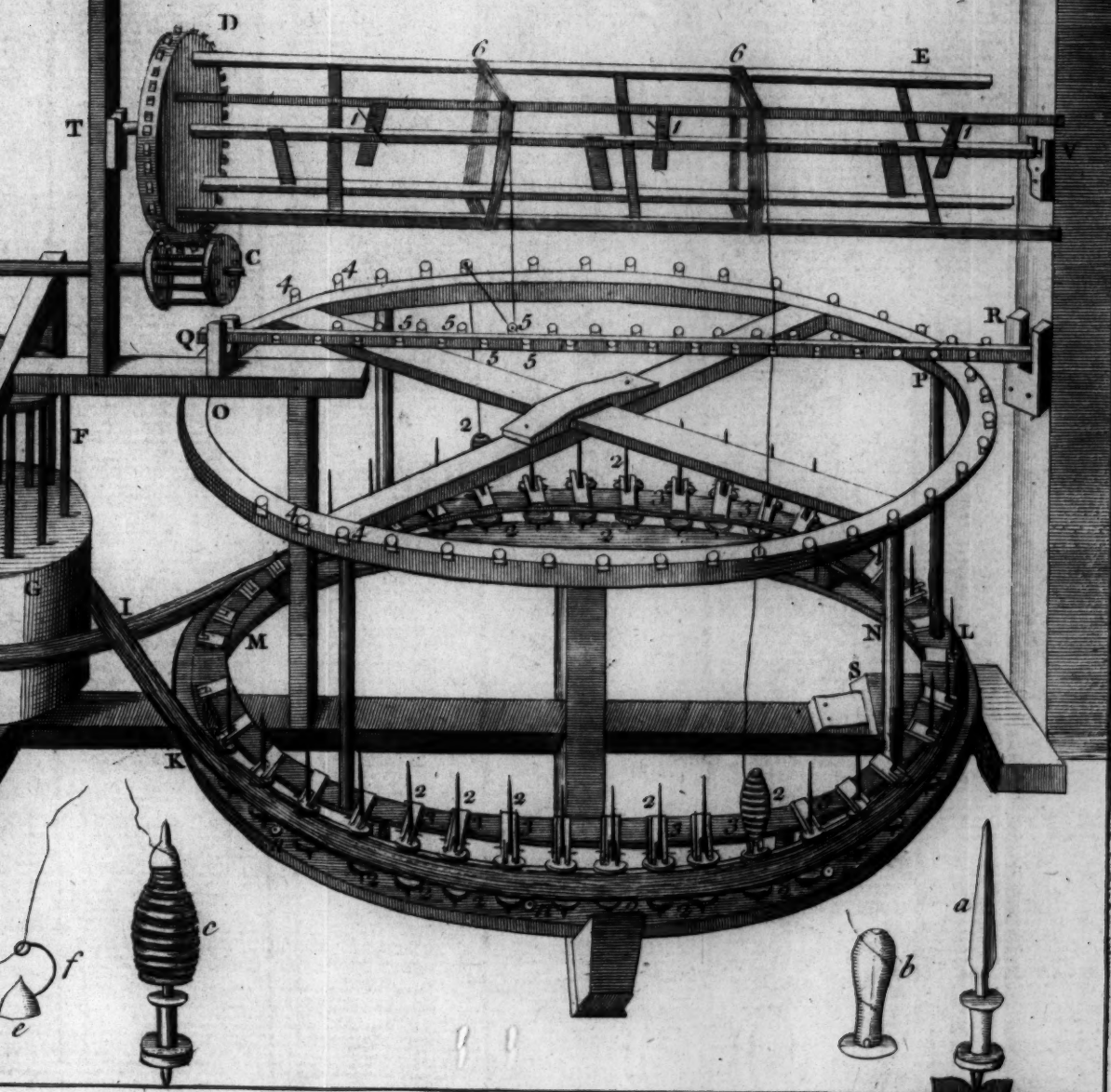
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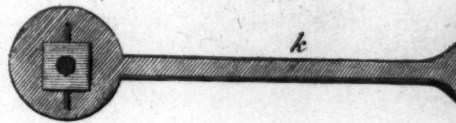
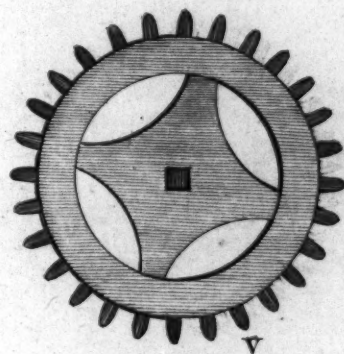
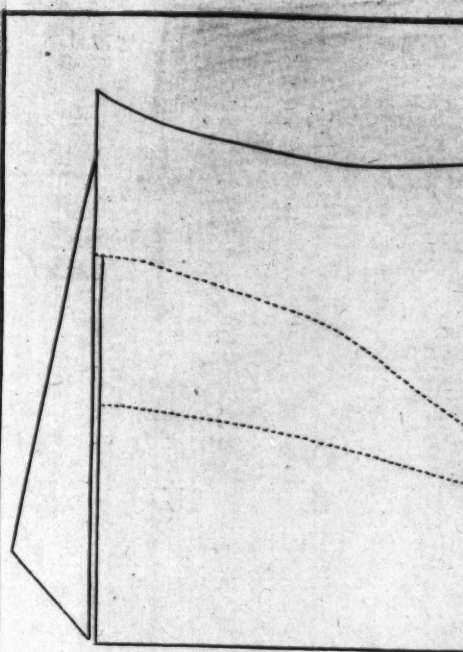
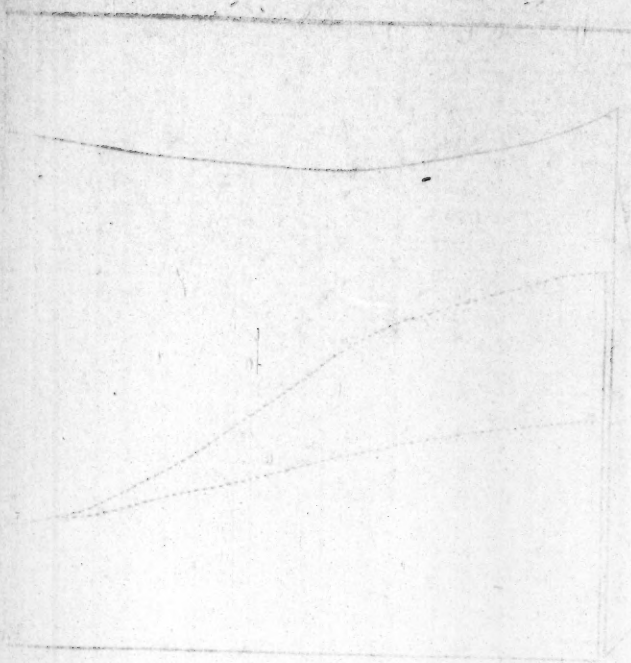


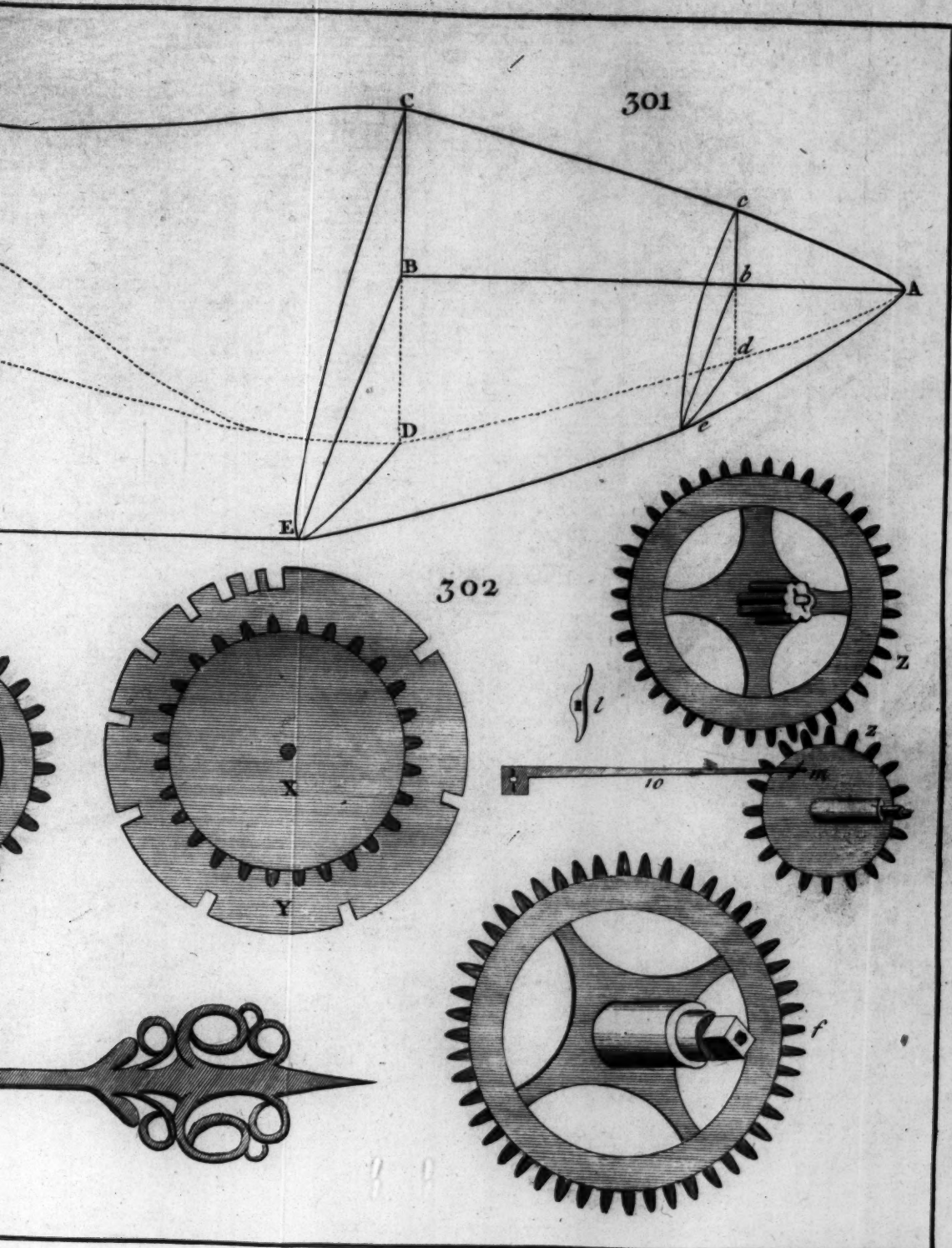


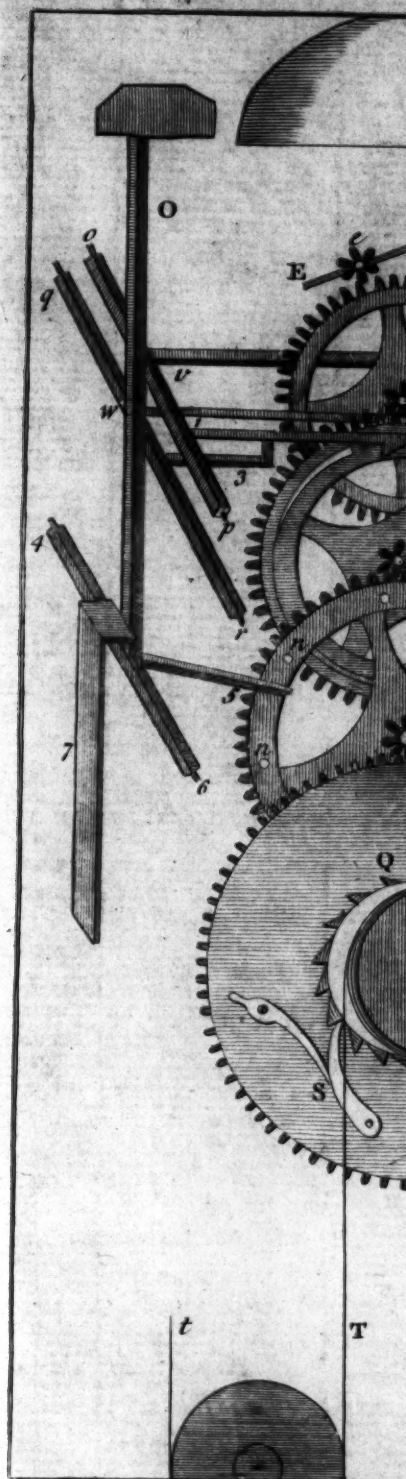
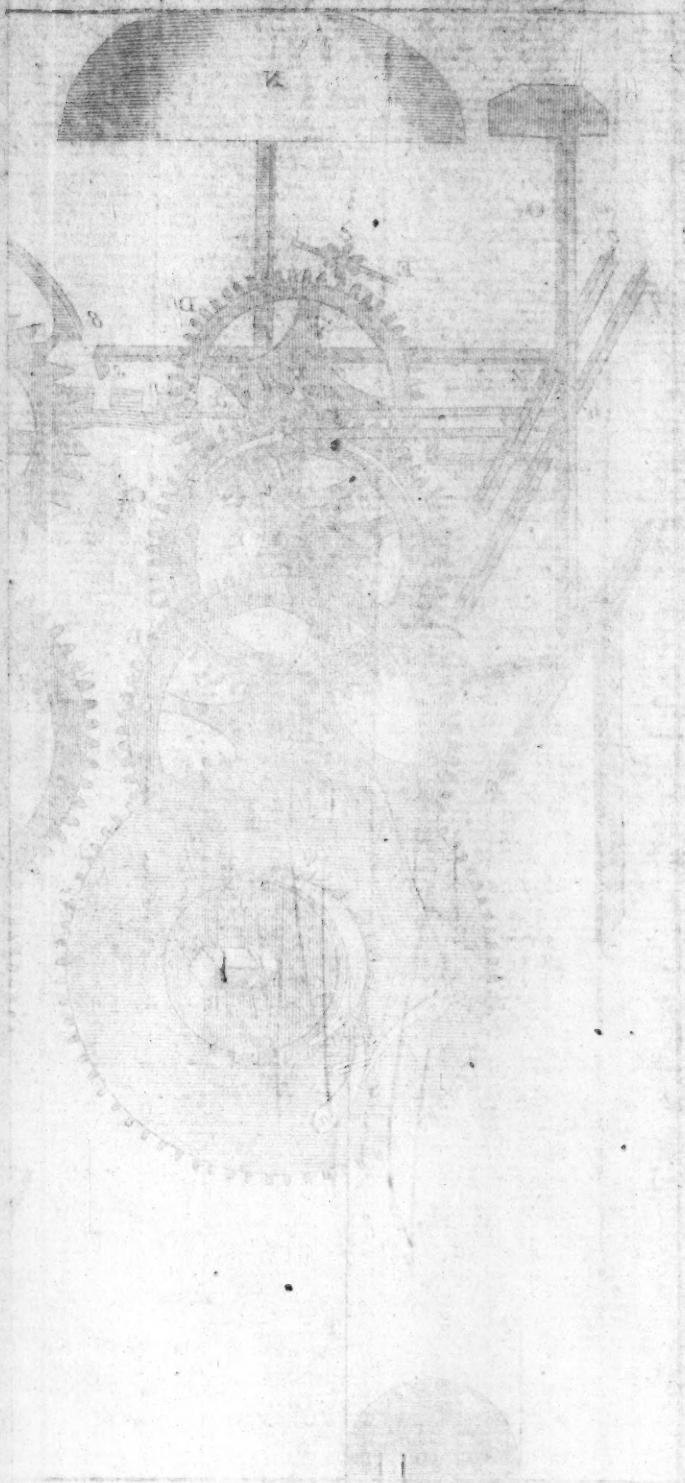


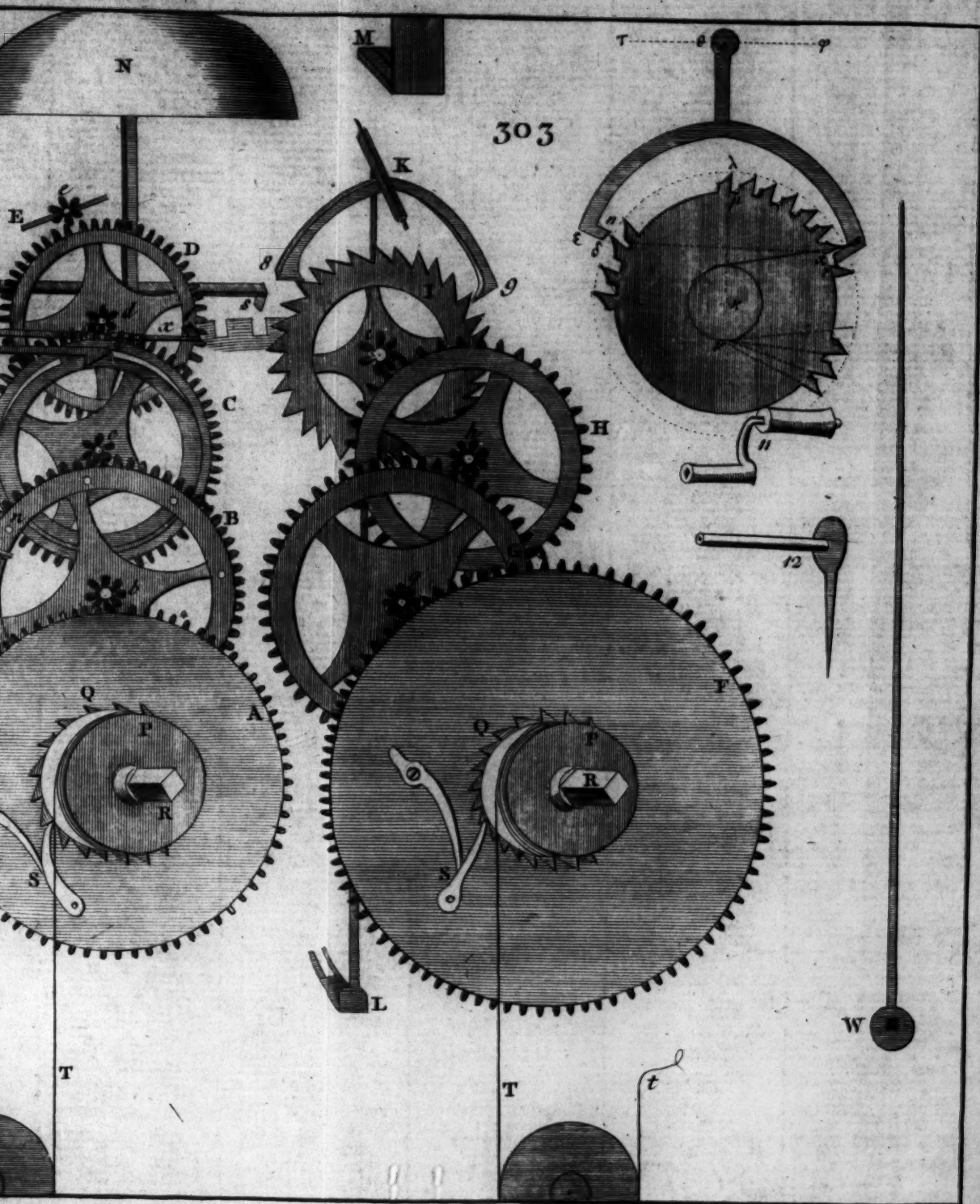


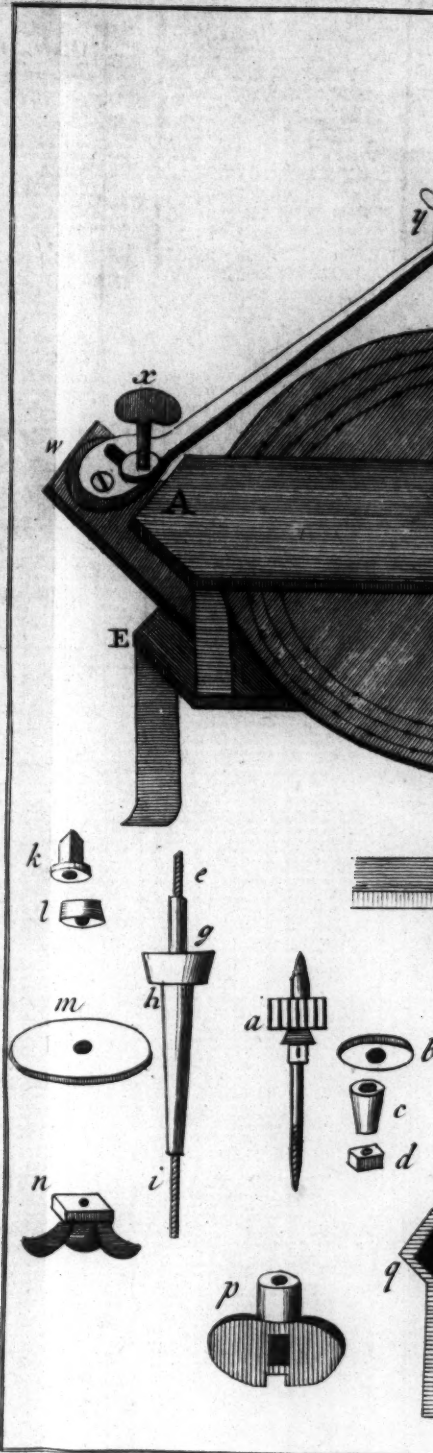
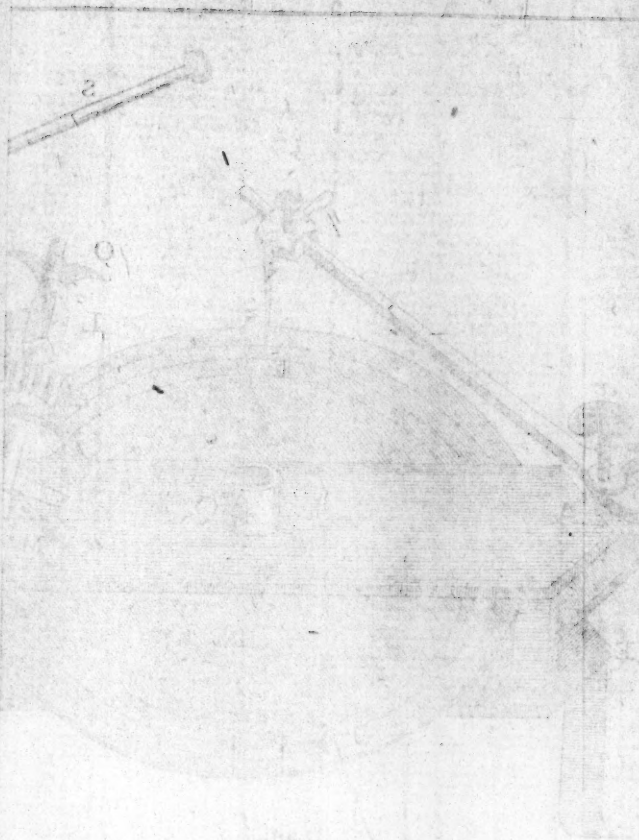


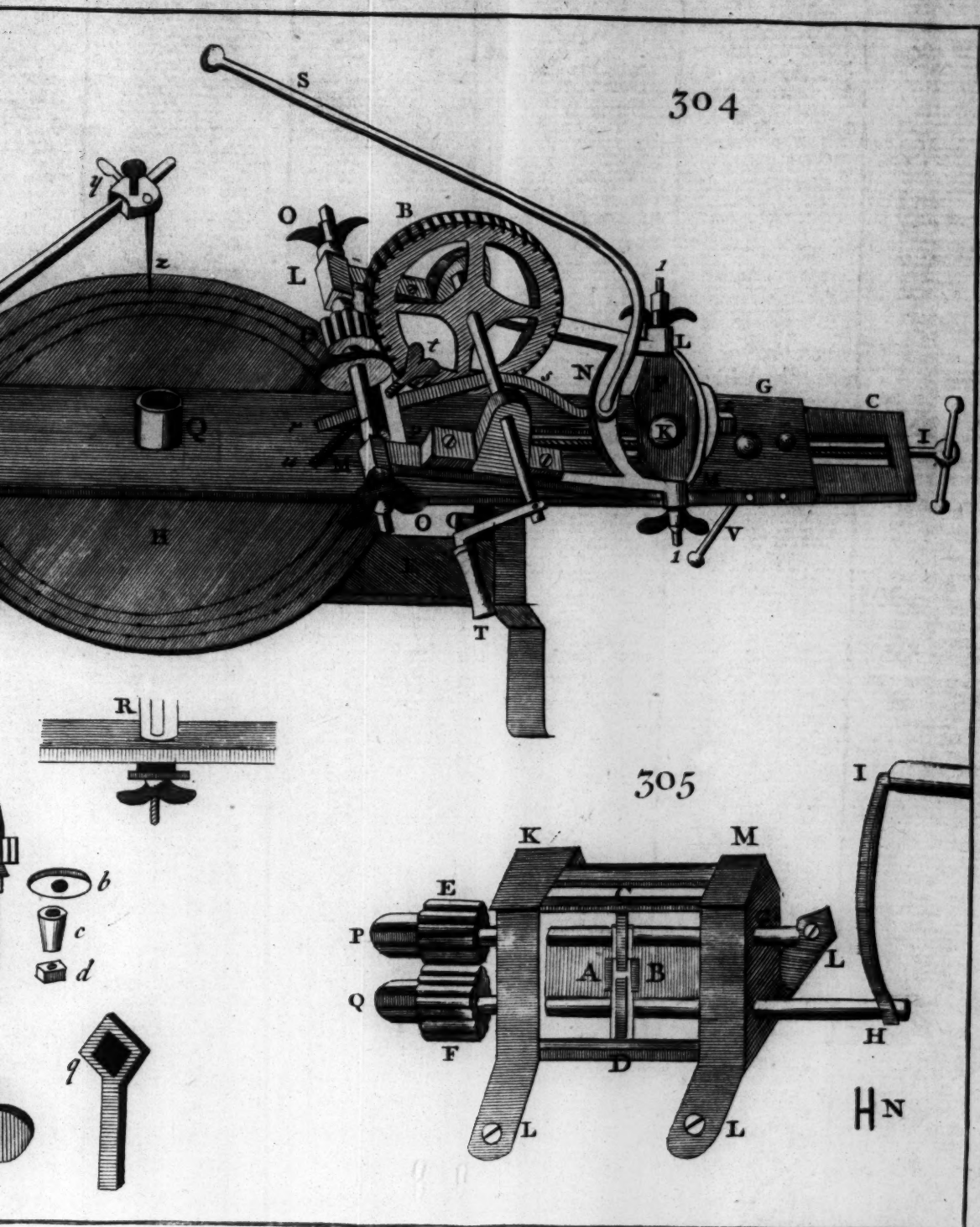


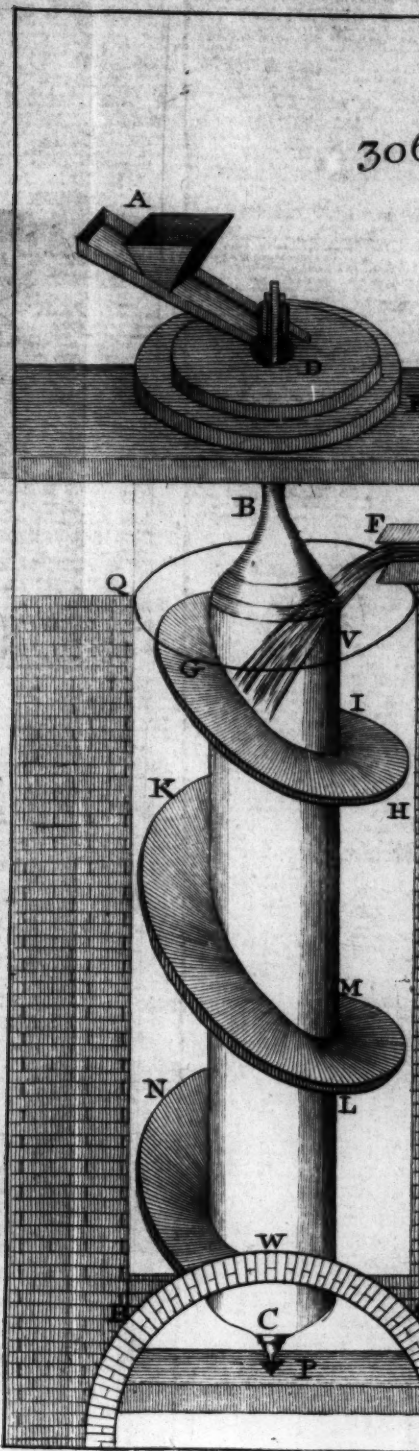




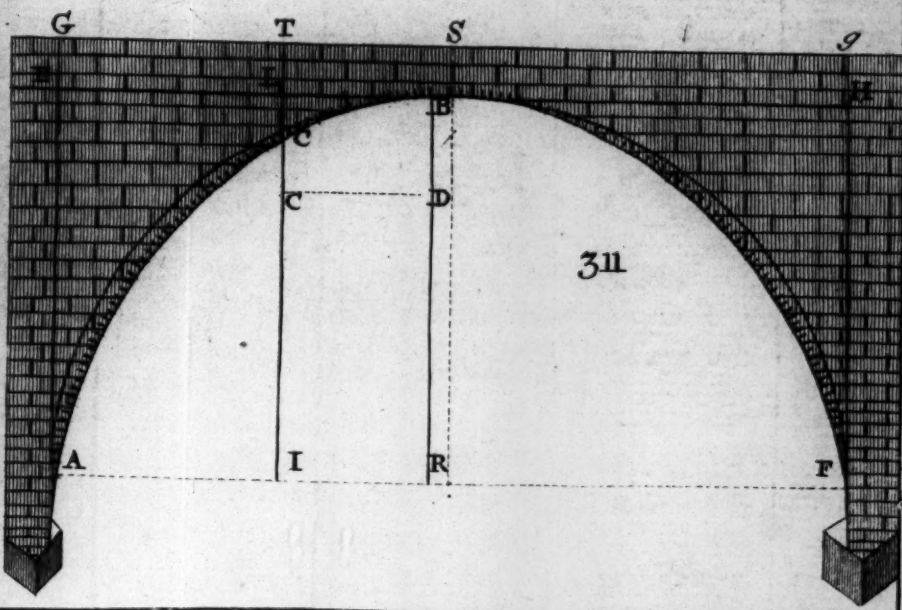
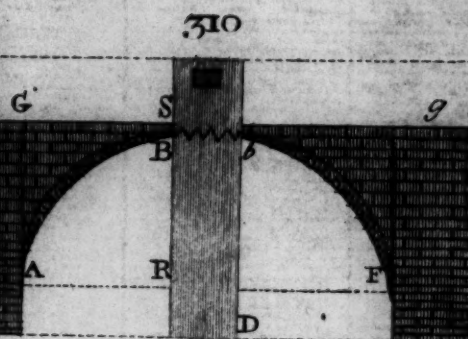
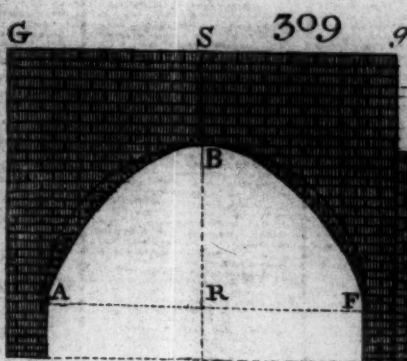
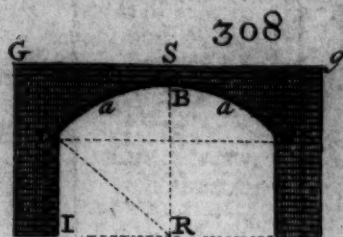
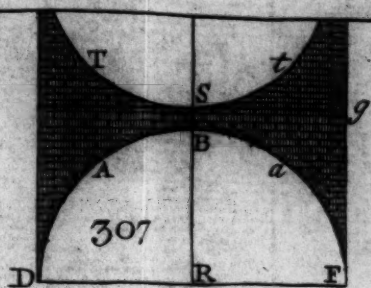
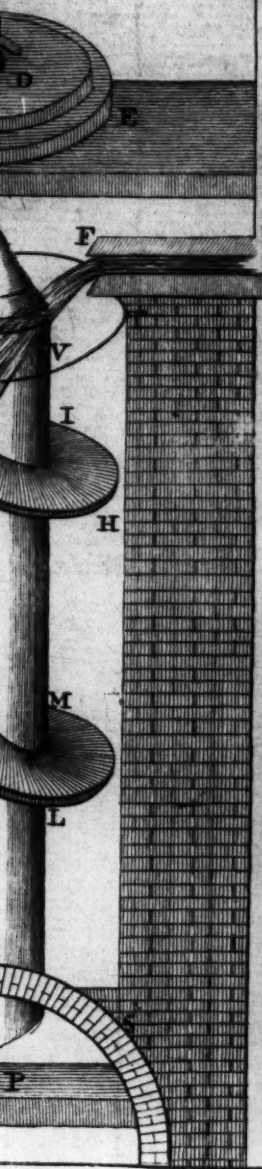


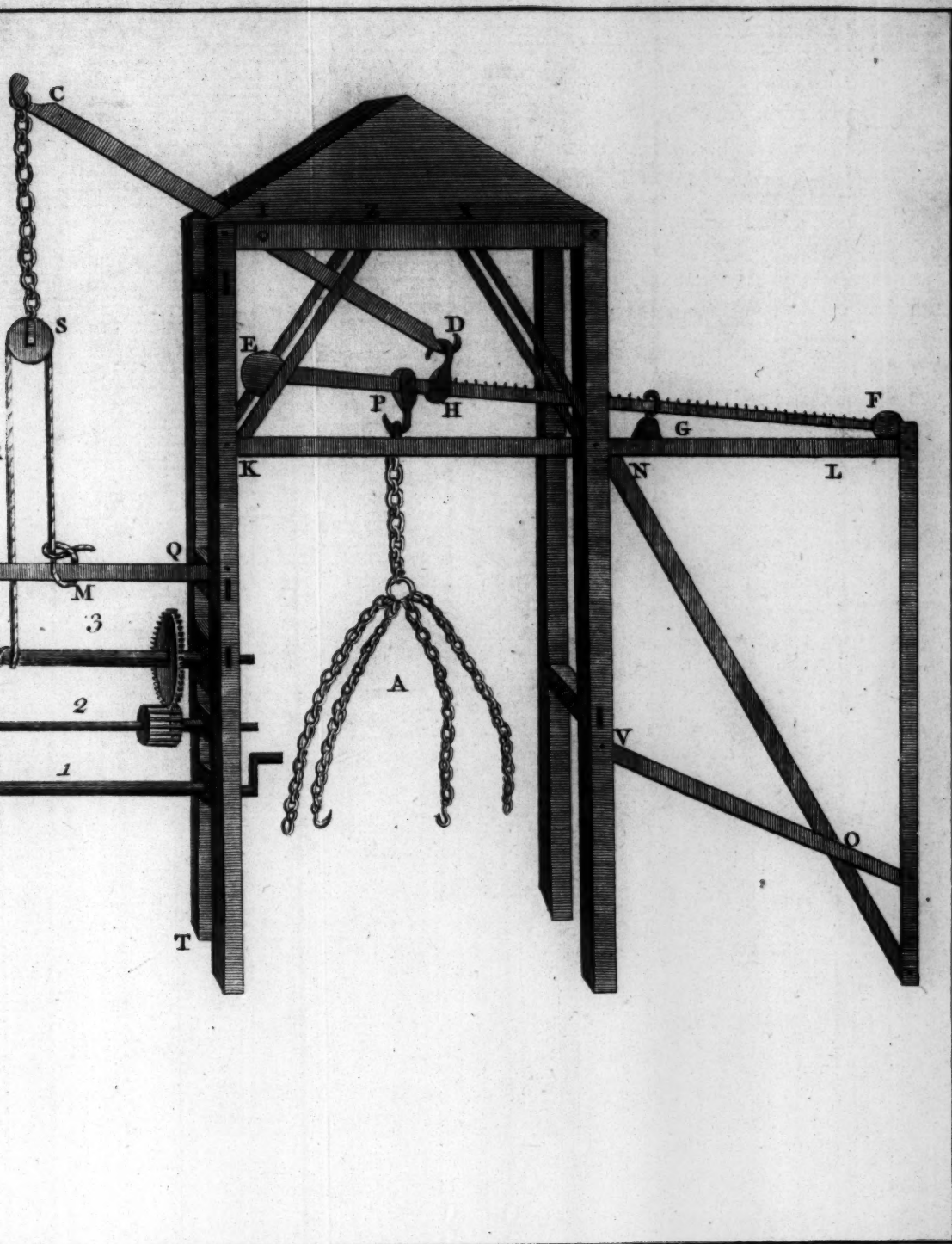






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Pl. XLII. the End.

